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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 16, 1905.

The Week.

Mr. Roosevelt fittingly took up the negro question in his Lincoln Day speech before the Republican Club of this city. This organization, like the Union League Club, has manifested a deep and sincere interest in the political welfare of the race which Lincoln freed. It has gone so far as to urge the punishment of the South for disfranchising the negro, by the reduction of its representation in Congress and in the Electoral College. Upon this point Mr. Roosevelt did not touch, but he pleaded vigorously and earnestly for that fair play for the colored man which is so essential to the welfare of both whites and blacks. "The only safe principle," he well said, "upon which Americans can act is that of 'all men up,' not that of 'some men down.'" It has been known since his election that he hoped to gain the South's affection, and there has been no little anxiety among the colored people and their sympathizers as to precisely the form the wooing was to take. In this his first public utterance on the subject since his great triumph, Mr. Roosevelt displays wisdom and tact, yet sticks to his guns. While noting with satisfaction the recent decrease in lynchings, he does not fail to give heartiest acknowledgments to "the ministers, the judges and law officers, the grand juries, the public men, and the great daily newspapers in the South," to whom the credit for this renaissance of law and order is largely due. Mr. Roosevelt was fortunate in being able to reinforce his own opinions by quoting those of Bishop Strange of North Carolina.

It cannot fairly be said that the lawyers of the Senate Judiciary Committee have "made short work" of the President's constructive-recess theory, for they took twelve months and ten days to make up their minds, and have not yet put in a report. But they have at least taken no stock in the notion that between twelve o'clock and twelve o'clock on December 7, 1903, there was an interval within which vacancies could occur and be filled under the recess-appointment clause of the Constitution. It is not to be supposed that the Senate's action at this late date will have any effect on the fortunes of Gen. Wood, Collector Crum, and the hundred or more other "recess" appointees. No decision by the Comptroller has ever been made public regarding the Major-General's pay for Gen. Wood during the months that elapsed between his "recess" commission and his final confirmation by the Senate, and he presumably received it, under Secretary Shaw's interpretation of the law, as "de facto" major-general. As for Dr. Crum, he was not receiving pay at the time, on account of another rule, so his status did not affect the Treasury balance at all. But the Judiciary Committee's decision will probably be regarded as a declaration of the Senate's position regarding any future situation of the same kind.

President Roosevelt is represented as "greatly disturbed" at the use which "the railroad interests" are making of Mr. Paul Morton's presence in the Cabinet. The latter's connection with the Atchison rebates is artfully made "a weapon" in the hands of those who are criticising or antagonizing the President's railroad policy. Yes, but why? Only because there is a necessary absurdity in starting out on a resounding campaign against rebates, with a giver and defender of rebates as your chief of staff. The escape from the embarrassment is easy. Any Secretary who thus hampers a President is, in delicacy, bound to resign; and, if he does not, may be removed without any delicacy at all. With singular unanimity, the press has been pointing out to Mr. Morton his fine opportunity to do the President a great service by serving him no longer. If he does not take the hint, Mr. Roosevelt should.

For the investigation of the illegal rebates by the Atchison, Topeka, and Santa Fé Railroad, two Democrats have been engaged by the Department of Justice—Judson Harmon, Attorney-General of the United States in the second Cleveland Administration, and Frederick N. Judson of the St. Louis bar. They are authorized to probe the matter to the bottom, and, if the evidence warrant, to institute criminal proceedings. With a Congressional committee gathering—as a basis for legislation—facts about rebates, discriminations, and other abuses of the public, and with Messrs. Harmon and Judson prodding the Santa Fé, the coming spring and summer will be uncommonly lively for railway managers. All this energy will be well expended if we succeed in discovering just what may be accomplished under existing laws. In choosing prosecuting lawyers whose standing and political faith are guarantee against any whitewashing of eminent Republicans, the Administration has done all that its most exacting critic could demand.

Several long-expected transfers in high diplomatic posts, to take effect on March 4, will result in the retirement of Laurence Townsend, the present minister to Belgium. Whether this is voluntary or involuntary, it is to be regretted. Mr. Townsend fitted himself for a diplomatic career by six years of study in Europe of languages, history, and international law. He was appointed secretary of legation in Vienna in 1893, was promoted to be Minister to Portugal in 1897, and was transferred to Belgium on April 15, 1899. Now, after twelve years, just when he should be of great usefulness by reason of his experience, he is to be displaced by Henry L. Wilson, who has been Minister to Chili since 1897. It seems to be an established rule that our ministers to Russia shall be changed frequently, and Mr. Roosevelt apparently thinks the present crisis a good time to put in a new man. George V. L. Meyer is to take charge of our affairs when all Russia is up in arms, yet he has been in our diplomatic service only since 1900. Mr. Henry White's long-promised promotion from first secretary at London to ambassador to Italy, in succession to Mr. Meyer, has been earned by eighteen years of service at the Court of St. James and in Vienna. All in all, the diplomatic service has perhaps a greater proportion of experienced men to-day than ever before. This is largely owing to continued Republican successes, but also to the fact that more men of the type of Laurence Townsend and John W. Riddle, now at Cairo, are attracted to the work.

That the Administration has a muddle on its hands in San Domingo is the natural result of the methods pursued in that business. They had been a strange mixture of secrecy and advertisement, of audacious advance and timid retreat. The result is that nobody knows clearly what has been done or what is proposed. There are obviously some flat contradictions in the testimony of our fiscal agent, Judge Abbott, and Commander Dillingham. On the question of the actual money receipts at Puerto Plata, it ought to be possible to test the conflicting statements of the two by appeal to the books. Instead of that, Administration dispatches intimate that Judge Abbott is "hostile" to its plans. That may be, and yet he may be telling the truth. There is evidently room for a great deal of official frankness about the whole San Domingo mess.

Allowed to resign under grave charges, John Goodnow quits the consular service. His original appointment as consul-general at Shanghai was an open scandal. A delegation of clergymen and college professors from Minnesota waited upon President McKinley to protest against naming a notorious ill-liver

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to an important office. But all was in vain, since Hanna had promised the place to this "original McKinley man." And as time went on, and Goodnow, who is a man of unquestioned native ability, was able to do good service, especially in the period of the Boxer troubles, the opponents of consular reform used to point to him as a living justification of the spoils system. "You see? One of the worst cases, as you call it, turns out well." But it did not. Goodnow acted after his kind. He was accused of the most serious irregularities, by responsible Americans in China, both business men and missionaries. Coming home indignantly to "vindicate" himself, he finds it convenient rather to resign. Presumably, he should have been removed in disgrace; though we may think ourselves well rid of him on any terms. So is the spoils system justified of its children.

The case of Senator Francis E. Warren of Wyoming and his son, who is both a student at Harvard and a clerk of the Senate Committee on Claims, demands a public explanation. To the Washington correspondent of the *Evening Post* Senator Warren said on Thursday, that if he began explaining these matters, he should have to explain them all, and he would not dignify them in that way. Friends of the Senator advance the interesting theory that, while the son is on the payroll, the money is really paid to the persons who do the work. This arrangement, we submit, is anything but businesslike. The names on the payroll should be those of the clerks themselves. Any other plan at once opens a clear path to fraud. The career of Justice Warren B. Hooker furnishes some striking examples of the results of juggling with payrolls. Justice Hooker's nephew, also a student, was nominally employed in the Fredonia post-office, but some one else did the work. Unfortunately, the substitute got but a small fraction of young Hooker's salary. There is no reason to shun publicity if the transaction be honest.

Senator John H. Mitchell of Oregon, who in his long public career has enjoyed a number of opportunities of exonerating himself, is now facing another. His law partner has turned state's evidence. One of the documents upon which Mitchell relied for defence was an agreement, presumably signed March 5, 1901, by which Mitchell was to share none of the returns from the land-office business of the firm. This compact, according to the confession of Tanner, was not signed till last December, after Mitchell's name had already become involved in the land scandals. There is also a long and interesting letter, in which Mitchell states to Tanner the facts as Mitchell wishes them to be understood and as Mitchell hopes Tanner will remember them. This epistle, like others famous in political history, contains several postscripts—the last one, "Burn this without fail." Mitchell is simply under indictment; he has not yet been tried and convicted. However pained he may be by these various disclosures, he can hardly be surprised that his tearful protestations of innocence are received with jeers.

The case of the member expelled last week from the Illinois Legislature illustrates a habit of such bodies. If a State Legislature existed in which integrity and public devotion flourished to the exclusion of all bad motives, and some malicious member should wantonly cast reflections on its fair fame, summary expulsion would be no more than his deserts. Therefore, legislatures anxious to retain a reputation for integrity and public devotion will deal harshly with every critic from the inside. This man, Mr. Comerford, delivered a lecture before the Illinois College of Law, in which he said some extremely disagreeable things about the conduct of the lawmaking bodies. His lecture was reported in the newspapers, and caused such a sensation that a legislative committee was appointed to investigate the charges. That committee now pronounces them unfounded, and the House has expelled their author. What meaning attaches to the word "unfounded" in Illinois, we do not know. The evidence, at least, came as near specification as this: Mr. Comerford charged that one member had attempted to bribe another with $200 to vote for a particular candidate for minority leader in the Democratic caucus. The member to whom the alleged offer was made confirmed the story, saying that he was asked to vote for a certain candidate, that his tempter then offered to bet $200 that the rival candidate would not be elected, and that, after refusing the proposal, he was asked to "name his price" and offered the choice of six desirable committees. Even the alleged briber admitted as much as the request for a vote and the offer of a bet. But the committee demanded legal proof of every assertion. The injudicious censor is perhaps right in his closing fling that "God Almighty Himself, if he came here, would have been prevented from getting evidence against a self-confessed thief."

It is not a bad sign that, all over the country, lists of members of the Legislature who refuse to accept railway passes are being printed. They are, in most cases, extremely short lists, but they are better than none at all. In Illinois there are six in the honorable roll. Two of these are Socialists, whose passes were returned for them by the State Central Committee of their party. By a strange chance, after the announcement that they would pay cash fares, they failed to arrive at Springfield until two days after those travelling on passes were on hand. The third of the anti-pass men is an Independent, and so jealous of his distinction that he does not even buy a ticket, but pays cash on the train and takes the conductor's receipt as documentary evidence of the purity of his motives. The Prohibitionist carries a 2,000-mile ticket for the same purpose. Still another of the sextet deserves mention because he was, in a way, the one sinner who repented. He wrote for passes after his election, like anybody else. On the way to Springfield, however, he noticed that several Circuit Court judges in the same car pulled out passes. Speculation as to how these favors might influence litigation led to the conclusion that the practice was as bad in the legislative as in the judicial department. On reaching Springfield, therefore, this member sent back his passes.

The Legislature of the State of Washington is preparing to pass a railroad commission bill this winter, though the Democratic campaign last fall on the railroad issue was not successful. The Portland *Oregonian*, a Republican paper in a neighboring State, remarks that the policy of the railroads themselves towards the commission has greatly changed within the past two years, and that they are now accepting the inevitable with a good grace. "The experience of every State that has tried the railroad-commission plan for remedying transportation evils has demonstrated that corporations get along quite peacefully with a commission, and there is no reason for assuming that there will be anything different in Washington." The region west of the Cascade Mountains is said to be reasonably satisfied with the situation as it is, since the railroads already give a cheap haul to market, but the farmers east of the range are confident that the commission will grant them rates which will compensate for the advantage of location enjoyed by their competitors. Just so in Wisconsin the aggrieved shippers feel sure that the commission to be created by La Follette's Legislature will prove their salvation, while those now favored affect the view that the commission could not in any case do less than approve the present schedules, which are themselves the essence of justice.

Both sides in the Colorado election investigation have contrived to bring out their salient points with uncommon neatness, not to say theatrical effect. The Republicans began by submitting ballot-box after ballot-box to handwriting experts, who then reported that so many ballots in each box were written by one person or by two persons. This was ex-

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tremely simple and concrete, and permitted the Republican papers to keep standing a table of the crooked votes identified up to date. The Democrats have now hunted up individual voters and put them on the stand to identify as their own ballots taken from the pile marked "fraudulent" by the Republican experts. In one precinct, a Republican election judge swore that on all the genuine ballots cast, except three or four, he had placed his initials on the numbered flap and then sealed it down. The 138 ballots pronounced fraudulent were then unsealed and the Republican judge's initials were found on all but three or four. Of course, if the ballot were really secret, such demonstrations as these would be impossible. As it is, it is certainly an advantage to leave as little as possible to inference in the probing of the Denver frauds. If every Republican claim were established, Peabody would be entitled to the Governorship by a fair margin. Yet at least one Republican paper, the Pueblo *Chieftain*, is now conceding that, in spite of the manifest frauds, Adams had a legitimate plurality.

Bishop W. N. McVickar and the Episcopal clergymen of Rhode Island are exposing themselves to the just wrath of the politicians of that State. They are to meet in order to consider "the desirability of united action on the part of the clergy in political reform in Rhode Island." The men and newspapers controlled by Senator Nelson W. Aldrich, Marsden J. Perry, and Boss Charles R. Brayton will, we are confident, explain to these misguided Episcopalians that ministers have no business even to mention political reform. Bishop McVickar is old enough and experienced enough to know that the breaking of every one of the Ten Commandments in the interest of party is not a sin, but a "political method." The real business of the clergy is to preach feeble and innocuous sermons, to attend sewing circles, and to remain amiable nonentities; they are impertinent meddlers when they begin to talk about the bribery of voters, the manipulation of legislatures, the subsidizing of the press, and that perversion of public sentiment by which men like Aldrich and Perry gain wealth and power.

The scandals concerning the franchise for the Chicago freight tunnels bring up some of the peculiar phases of a great engineering work. Every writer who has described the wonderful system which forms a gridiron of tracks beneath the streets of the business section of Chicago, has made much of the fact that this work was done so quietly that the citizens themselves did not know what was going on, and no one was inconvenienced for a moment. This was not due, however, solely to regard for public comfort. The tunnels were originally constructed, as a matter of fact, under an ordinance which authorized the company to build conduits for a telephone system. It was some time before it became known that the "conduits" were being made big enough to run a box-car through them. One of the alleged unsavory episodes concerns a report which was made to the Council on the progress of the work. This report, instead of being entered as merely "filed," was put down as "approved," thus giving the impression that the work was being officially endorsed. Another matter to be investigated is the alleged connivance of officials in the company's stretching of the powers granted in the original franchise. Chicago was able in the end to undo the harm caused by the original mistake. It was discovered that, even with its tunnels completed, the company could not carry freight in them without special authority, and in the final franchise the public interests were well safeguarded. Under it the tunnels come into the city's possession automatically at the end of thirty years.

That the Kentucky courts would uphold the law forbidding the education of blacks and whites together at Berea College was expected. But an appeal lies to the Supreme Court of the United States, and, as it does not involve the question of negro suffrage, the judges may perhaps be inclined to pass upon the issue instead of dodging it. The statute involved is the meanest legislative product of Southern race prejudice which has come to public notice for a long time. There had been no troubles and no scandals at Berea, which had for half a century been pursuing its noble aim of educating both whites and blacks of the mountain districts of Kentucky without molestation by the Legislature until last year. Then this law was passed without any inquiry on the spot as to facts or conditions. Many of the members did not wish to vote for it, but did not dare oppose the demagogues who for the moment have the ear of a misled people. No reference was made, for instance, to the fact that a large part of the endowment, if not all of it, was contributed with the understanding that the income from it should be applied to the education of both races under the same roof.

Texas City is a place of 250 population, seven miles northwest of Galveston. The proposal to make it by act of Congress a sub-port of entry served as a text for the annual exposition of the present absurd and wasteful machinery for collecting our customs revenue, though this particular bill seems to have been unobjectionable. It is an expensive joke to maintain ports like Galena, Ill., where it cost last year $378.05 to collect 70 cents; St. Mary's, Ga., where $581.90 was spent and $2.44 collected; or Beaufort, N. C., where receipts and expenditures were $13.01 and $136.44 respectively. Prior to 1877 a similar condition prevailed with regard to the internal revenue. With about $110,000,000 of collections, there were 209 districts. Now, with more than twice that amount of revenue, there are only 66. No district shows expenses greater than one-third the receipts; and, for the country over, it costs less than two-thirds as much to collect a dollar of internal revenue as a dollar of customs. The House Appropriations Committee last year attempted to put through a measure reorganizing the customs service along similar lines, but it went out on a point of order. Indeed, there is bound to be a certain amount of opposition so long as it is possible for a Congressman to get some town in his district made a sub-port in the same fashion that he might get for it a new post-office.

With notable promptness, the Rouvier ministry has introduced a bill for the abolition of the Concordat. So far as the new measure may be judged from telegraphic abstracts, it is more conciliatory than M. Combes's similar project. About all of the late Premier's separation policy gathered an atmosphere of contention. It never seemed that he was merely seeking to separate Church and State; he had rather the air of avenging the quarrel concerning the bishops, of continuing the proscription of the Church schools, and especially of defying the Pope. The new separation bill is not very different in essentials from the old, but it is presented at least in an impartial spirit. It represents apparently an honest desire to secure, under the supremacy of the State, religious liberty and independence to all denominations. It punishes no one, but simply marks out a new policy. One may say in a word that the new bill corresponds to M. Rouvier's moderation. Naturally, the French Roman Catholics have been gradually preparing themselves for separation and the consequent cessation of the State subsidies to the secular clergy. The Comte d'Haussonville, in two notable articles in the *Figaro*, has pointed out that, by forming Church associations under the civil law, the parishes will put themselves virtually beyond the reach of Government interference. That they will be better off by claiming only the immunities of other associations of citizens, he believes firmly, and he is confident that the money withdrawn by the State will soon be contributed by the faithful. His elaborate argument confirms our view that the Church will lose rather little by separation. In fact, the more enlightened Catholics of France look forward to the ideal of a free and independent Church in a free and tolerant State.

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THE DEAD TREATIES.

In estimating the work of the Senate in defeating, under the guise of ratifying, the arbitration treaties, one must distinguish between form and substance, between act and animus. Technically, the Senate's excuse comes down to the assertion that there can be no general legislation by treaty. Each case must be made the subject of a special act. This is much as if there could be no comprehensive law against forgery, but that Forger John Doe and Forger Richard Roe must each be provided for by separate statute. What the arbitration treaties undertook to do was to specify the main classes of international differences which it should be our policy and purpose to submit to arbitration. Such general notions, however, were alleged by the Senate to be above its mental capacity. An individual controversy it could understand, but controversies as a class were too much for it. Hence each one must be laid separately before its godlike reason. That, in effect, is the ostensible explanation of the Senate's action.

We do not question the honesty or intelligence of some of the Senators who voted to amend the treaties. They had a legal and Constitutional scruple. But why may not a treaty be made the supreme law of the land when covering many details, and laying down broad principles, as well as when concerned with merely a particular instance? The arbitration treaties proposed (1) to express a strong preference for arbitration as against war, and (2) to set forth, in the most general terms, and reserving the amplest discretion, the classes of international difference which might be referred to arbitrators under a special "agreement." But no, said the Senate; it must be "treaty," not "agreement." We think the President rightly describes this amendment as a step backwards. Its legal justification seems to us exceedingly fine-spun, while the real motive for the Senate's action glares out of all its pretences.

It is a sorrowful thing, but the evidence is pretty clear that the Senate does not want, and does not mean to have, an effective arbitration treaty with Great Britain. It is with that country that the pinch comes. About the other treaties, the Irish societies in this country which have been besieging the Senate, openly and secretly, did not care a straw; it was only the English treaty they were determined should never be ratified in a form really promising efficiency. And its nullification has been accomplished by the same method—assassin amendment—that was used to do to death the original Olney-Pauncefote treaty of arbitration. In spite of the appeals of both President Cleveland and President McKinley, notwithstanding the petitions of merchants and educators and clergymen by the thousand, the trick was done by Lodge and other tools of the Clan-na-Gael. Similarly, this year, the word had gone forth that a working treaty of arbitration with England was not to be permitted. It was to be killed, if not openly, then by indirection. The Senate fumbled for a long time, discussing one murderous amendment after another. Finally, when it knew of the President's determination to abandon the treaties if the word "treaty" was substituted for "agreement," it rushed with suspicious alacrity to make that substitution. The treaties were to be beaten by hook or by crook; they have been by crook.

But while we think the course of the Senate has been mistaken and most unfortunate, we admit that there was provocation. It was given by President Roosevelt himself. By the cool audacity and lawlessness of his first proposals respecting San Domingo, followed up as they have been by a lamentable amount of shuffling and lack of frankness, he at once alarmed his friends and gave his foes, and the foes of arbitration, a handle. In vain did he plead, after it was too late, that the Executive would exercise his discretion wisely and lawfully. The San Domingo spectre was there on the horizon, to show what kind of "agreement'" Mr. Roosevelt was capable of contemplating. Thus it was his own headlong folly that gave the enemies of arbitration their great chance to strike.

We are bound to say, also, that the Senate appears to have realized, better than the President does himself, the deep inconsistency between his praise of war, together with his eager preparation for it, and his advocacy of arbitration. Senators accept his furibund talk about "the strong man armed"; they simply smile at him when he coos of peace. Mr. Roosevelt should not have expected that his chickens would not come home to roost. Probably no man of his time has done more to spread abroad the idea that arbitration is the resort of the weakling and the coward. As for amending good treaties to death, people have not forgotten how he, when Governor of New York, rudely denounced the first Hay-Pauncefote treaty as a surrender, and publicly expressed the hope that it would be rejected if not radically altered. A man cannot have talked for years as Theodore Roosevelt has done, acted as he has acted, and then suddenly pose as the grieved apostle of peace, without our special wonder.

The Senate's amendment destroyed the vital principle of the arbitration treaties, as it was intended that it should. Yet so important do we think it that even a pious hope of peace should be breathed by the civilized nations, that we had sympathized with those disappointed friends of arbitration who desired to see something saved, if possible, out of the wreck of the treaties. But the State Department announces that the wreck is absolute.

A LEGISLATIVE GRIMACE.

The House of Representatives was not engaged on Thursday in passing a railroad rate bill so much as in making faces at the railroads. Both morally and legally, the effect would have been the same if the House had turned "Buster Brown" and nailed up on the front of the Speaker's desk: "Resolved, That we don't like railroads and wish we knew some way to bang 'em good." On all hands it was admitted that the proceedings were farcical. The merits of the bill were scarcely discussed. To pass it without looking into its effect or defects might help the President and hurt the railways, so passed it was; only a handful of members stopping to inquire whether the process would not hurt the House more than it possibly could the railroads.

Ill-considered and insincere legislation can redound to the prestige of no legislative body; and ill-considered and insincere the rate bill passed by the House certainly was. Chairman Hepburn made a tearful explanation of his part in framing it, which reads as if deliberately calculated to discredit the measure actually voted. That is to say, he showed how superior was the Hepburn bill, which the committee rejected, to the Townsend bill, which it accepted. In drafting his own bill, Mr. Hepburn had the advantage of drinking from the fountain of official inspiration, having freely and repeatedly consulted the President and the Attorney-General. Indeed, said the innocent or the designing Hepburn (it is hard to decide which to think him), the final form of his own bill came bodily, with the exception of two words, from the pen of Attorney-General Moody. Yet it was this carefully drawn measure which was set aside in favor of the crude Townsend bill. Take one comparison. The Hepburn bill (with Mr. Moody's *imprimatur*) carefully provided for legal review of the Interstate Commerce Commission's orders, and stipulated that "pending such review, if the court shall be of opinion that the order or requirement of the Commission is unreasonable or unlawful, it may suspend the same until the further order of the court." All of that was stricken out by the impetuous Townsend. It is a wonder that he and the committee did not adopt that beautiful proviso of the Davey bill defining the Commission's power to fix a "reasonable" rate—"Provided, That the Commission shall in no case have power to *raise* a rate." If it is unreasonably low, it has to stay low, reason or no reason.

It is not necessary, however, to discuss the bill in detail. It confessedly comes into this breathing world "scarce

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half made up," as deformed and unfinished as Richard III. Even the President, at whose behest it was passed, says he is most anxious to have it "perfected." This is his way of complimenting the House. Any sort of ragged and limping measure is good enough for the Representatives; the real work of statesmen in shaping legislation will be done elsewhere. Yet the Republicans of the House seem to take this left-handed tribute as a special grace on President Roosevelt's part!

That the action of the House marks one step more in its legislative degradation, we think few sober men will deny. If it has become, not simply a deliberative body no longer, but a mere cat's-paw, a pliant convenience, a set of men without either ideas or a will of their own, docile before dictation from the outside, and resigned to the prospect of their work being torn to pieces elsewhere—why, we are further on in parliamentary decadence than any one had supposed. In effect, the House is selling to the Executive—and for a mess of pottage — one after another of its birthrights. To discuss, to control, to decide, to fix great policies in both outline and detail, was the ancient privilege of the House, but it is now surrendered with scarcely a protest. In the act, we see illustrated in this country a tendency which Lord Salisbury detected in English political life, according to a letter of his which Mr. Sidney Low has recently published in his book, 'The Governance of England.' Reading House of Representatives for House of Commons, the following would fit conditions at Washington with startling precision:

> "I think you reason quite soundly in showing that in respect to the larger issues the House of Commons is gradually losing its power between the Cabinet on the one side and the electorate on the other. The power which the Cabinet has of acting upon the various motives which guide members of Parliament is so great, that the majority is more and more becoming a blind machine."

When you add that the House in ceasing to be free ceases also to be sincere, you have come pretty near touching bottom. Yet insincerity was stamped all over its late action. Listlessly the members voted almost unanimously for a bill which all admitted to be at such loose ends that it would be a calamity were it to become law, and which nine out of ten hoped in their hearts the Senate would smother.

THE PROPOSED NEW STATES.

The Senate's action on the Statehood bill on January 7 was notable both for the absence of partisanship and for the extent to which the terms of the bill were modified by roll calls. Practically, the measure was made new. The House plan was to dispose of all four of the existing Territories at once by grouping them into two States. The Senate's bill, while providing for the admission of only two States at present, is, in effect, a three-State plan, since Arizona, put on probation for a while, can hardly be denied Statehood ultimately.

The perplexity of Congress over the disposal of the four Territories has been only natural. It was thought best to deal with them all at the same time, and yet scarcely any statement could be made that would apply to all four. Oklahoma showed a larger rate of growth between the censuses of 1890 and 1900 than any State or Territory, and Indian Territory stood second, but New Mexico showed less growth proportionately than any Western State except Nevada. Indian Territory is more densely populated than Texas, and Oklahoma than Florida, California, the Dakotas, or a half-dozen other States, while New Mexico and Arizona are more sparsely settled than any except Nevada and Wyoming. Oklahoma and Indian Territory have as abundant rainfall as Minnesota or Nebraska, while in the list of Weather Bureau stations the lowest annual precipitation registered anywhere is in Arizona. Oklahoma is agricultural, Indian Territory has valuable coal and oil lands, Arizona and New Mexico gold and silver mines. In size, too, the diversity is manifest. Indian Territory is a little larger than South Carolina, a little smaller than Maine; Oklahoma is larger than Indiana, but smaller than Virginia; while Arizona includes as many square miles as Pennsylvania, Delaware, West Virginia, and Ohio combined, and into New Mexico could almost be packed the six New England States and New York besides.

Turning to the character of population, Oklahoma has a larger proportion of native whites of native parents than any State in the Union except West Virginia. Arizona is No. 43 on the list. Two-fifths of New Mexico's population is of Mexican descent. Arizona, strangely enough, has a percentage of half as many Indians again as Indian Territory itself. Only four States in the black belt have a larger proportion of illiteracy than New Mexico, while Oklahoma has less than Massachusetts. Finally, New Mexico has had an organized territorial government and a delegate in Congress for fifty-five years, while Indian Territory has never yet had either.

Any one of these Territories would like to come in as a State by itself, but, failing that, they did not agree as to the alternative. Arizona would rather remain a Territory than be consolidated with New Mexico, fearing that the Mexican element of the latter Territory would control a majority of seats in the joint Legislature. The other three are more inclined to accept half a loaf. Oklahoma, which has now the machinery of government, and would probably keep it, will be likely to gain by amalgamation with Indian Territory, though the tribal governments do not terminate until July, 1906.

The House has voted twice to admit Arizona, and seventeen times to admit New Mexico, while the Senate once voted for New Mexican Statehood, though the houses failed to agree on details. Action has been put off from year to year, until now Oklahoma has a larger population than any Territory ever had before at the time of admission; and even Arizona, the least of the four in population, had at the last census more people than had two-thirds of the States admitted in the past.

The two-State plan had the simple merit of disposing of all the arguments based on inadequacy of resources or of population. If one Territory was not good enough for Statehood, lump it with another. As it happens, this would in both cases have merely reunited Territories that were originally one. Arizona was separated from New Mexico in 1863 on the ground that the Territory was altogether too large for administrative purposes, while Oklahoma was carved from the old Indian Territory as late as 1890. One essential weakness of the two-State argument was pointed out in the debate by Senator McCumber. The union of New Mexico and Arizona was proposed on the ground that they were similar in natural resources, while the other merger was urged for the opposite reason that their resources were unlike and complementary. To avoid the chance of admitting another Nevada, the two-State advocates were willing to create another Texas.

It seems to us that the amendments which have resulted from the many conflicting opinions of individual Senators are on the whole wise. If Oklahoma stood by itself, there would be little reason for refusing immediate Statehood; but the case of Indian Territory is somewhat different, and united there is not the slightest doubt of their ability to become a State creditable in every way. As for the huge area on the southern border, it is hard to see why the reasons urged for its partition forty-odd years ago do not hold good to-day. The distance from corner to corner would be about equal to that from New York to Chicago. Litigation would be made expensive and administration difficult. With that proposal rejected, the question remaining was whether to keep Arizona waiting. Much is promised for the Territory; in fact, the testimony given before the Congressional committees showed notable progress since the last census was taken. But the best argument for postponement is found in the flat conflict of statements regarding the agricultural and mining possibilities of the State. It is argued on the one side that irrigation can make Arizona a garden spot, while the other side rejoins that some irrigation works already con-

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structed have proved failures for lack of sufficient water. A few years ought to make possible at least an agreement as to the facts.

The Senate gave the measure an uncommonly full and fair discussion, and has much more reason to insist upon its contention than the House, which rushed it through wtih only the travesty of a debate.

TEMPERANCE IN GERMANY.

The simple five-line cable announcement that the German Emperor had given permission to his army officers to drink toasts in water, doubtless seemed of trivial importance to most American readers. It must, however, have created a sensation in Germany, where an officer wishing to be a total abstainer has found it practically impossible to live up to his principles. To drink the health of his majesty in anything else than champagne has hitherto been regarded as a mild form of leze-majesty. Few officers have had the courage, the character, and the position to face the criticism certain to follow an avowal of abstinence from alcoholic beverages. One of these is Field Marshal Count von Haeseler, recently retired, who was considered one of the most brilliant officers in the service, and certain of high command in the event of hostilities. He is, moreover, a warm friend of the Emperor, and his example may well have influenced his sovereign when the latter informed the Munich Society against the Misuse of Spirituous Liquors that "no compulsion exists to partake of toasts in alcoholic drink," and expressed the hope that this fact would receive wide publicity.

The officers of the Kaiser's army cannot be regarded as an aggregation of topers. Not even the sensational writers like Beyerlein, Bilse, and Von Baudissin have gone so far as this in their recent novels. But all of them have dwelt upon the fact that there was entirely too much drinking, particularly in the officers' casinos or clubs, and there has been a widespread belief that this evil, instead of decreasing, has grown worse, particularly in isolated garrisons and in the most fashionable and aristocratic regiments of the service. Everywhere the temptations besetting a young officer are enormous. He is expected to drink with every comrade at the first entertainment in which he participates, and is supposed to lag behind no one in conviviality at the regimental gathering known as the *Liebesmahl*, or regimental "feast of brotherhood," which has been the undoing of many an officer. A certain corps commander admitted last summer that his annual tour of inspection was a round of torture for him, since custom required every regiment to entertain him at an elaborate banquet, at which his subordinates were particularly anxious—for obvious reasons—to see that he reached a state of mellowness.

That there could be a temperance, or a moderation, society, of which the Emperor would take notice, would have seemed impossible twenty years ago. Still more incredible would have appeared a prophecy that within so short a time there would be a widespread agitation to curtail the use of beer and liquor. There were then voices crying in the wilderness, but the wilderness was very great, the voices few, and the echoes rare. Profssor Fick of Würzburg, who long preached the doctrine of abstinence, suffered severely because he, like Professor Bunge of Basel, dared to avow himself "ein Temperenzler." Before he died, in 1891, he lamented the fact that the cause had made no progress in his lifetime. But, just as he passed away, the day of propaganda and of progress was at hand. Curiously enough, it is the scientists who have led in the movement rather than social reformers, and, as one of our correspondents recently pointed out, it was in Heidelberg itself, the home of the beer-drinking student, famous for its giant tun, that the experiments of Professor Kraepelin, begun in 1892, supplied a variety of scientific arguments in favor of abstinence as opposed to moderate drinking. Professor Kraepelin and his assistants speedily became convinced that there was no increase in vigor and alertness through drinking. In the case of some typesetters it was "ascertained that when these men had drunk half a bottle of wine each, they were under the delusion of increased vigor and capacity for work, while they actually did inferior work. This disturbing influence was still quite distinct on the following day, so that a second day of abstinence was necessary to bring the men up again to their own standard of efficiency." Among the students, particularly among those studying medicine, there are flourishing abstinence societies which make the oldest inhabitants of Heidelberg rub their eyes in amazement.

As yet church and school are indifferent to this movement. There is nothing that corresponds with the notable agitation on behalf of temperance undertaken by the Catholic Church in this country. The women's clubs, whose growth has been as striking as in the case of our own, have, however, begun to take up this question in earnest. Manufacturers, too, are beginning to see by practical experience that workmen who are constantly steeped in alcohol suffer a loss of productive power. The difference between laborers in north and south Germany in this respect is noteworthy. The publisher of a prominent newspaper, who recently moved his establishment to Munich from Berlin, estimates that the difference is fully 25 per cent. in favor of the North Germans. His new workmen have their beer bottles by their side throughout the day, and their union has blocked every effort to prevent drinking during office hours. This employer calls the great beer breweries which have made Munich prosperous "the curse of South Germany." He is himself not an abstainer. Students of our own liquor problem who see in the habitual use of beer and light wines an antidote to whiskey and brandy drinking, evidently have something to learn from a study of conditions in Germany. They will be surprised to find an increasing number of societies working for temperance, particularly in Bremen and Hamburg, where the Good Templars have obtained a firm foothold. Moreover, the German movement has at last obtained a respectful hearing from the press, which will be all the more liberal-minded now that the Emperor has taken his stand in regard to temperance in the army.

CIRCULATING MUSEUMS.

The consular reports from Birmingham are probably not favorite reading with art lovers, so we are glad to call attention to Consul Halstead's recent letter on a loan exhibition for educational purchases, supplied by the South Kensington Museum to the local art school. The exhibition consists of both originals and reproductions, and is made up with a view to the industries centred at Birmingham. Thus, metal work, enamel, jewelry, wood-carving, wood-engraving, designing for book illustrations, manuscripts as examples both of calligraphy and of illumination, are put at the disposal of the Birmingham students for the season of 1905. The principle is that of the travelling libraries, which have proved so successful in this and other States. That is, the collection is relatively small, and adapted to local needs. We presume that, as in the case of our own State Library, the South Kensington Museum gladly entrusts such collections to any responsible custodian.

A similar relation exists very advantageously between the central museums and outlying institutions of France and Prussia. The pictures regularly bought for the Luxembourg Gallery are, after a time, assigned to the provincial museums of France. Prussian galleries outside of Berlin regularly receive deposits of the surplus of the royal collections. It is easy to see that there are many objects of art which, while below the standards of a great museum, may be delightful in themselves and instructive to the student of the history of art. Every museum also acquires many duplicates, which, though they may not be especially available for exchange, would be very welcome in a smaller institution. Naturally, there could be no question of circulating permanent and major exhibits. The Luxembourg, in sending Whistler's portrait of his mother to a London exhibition, displays a liberality

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little likely to be imitated. But out of the minor possessions of any great museum many small educational collections could be made which might be sent about with the same profit now experienced in the case of library loans of books or art reproductions.

Details will readily fly to the mind of anybody familiar with museum management. The storeroom of any large institution would fit out an excellent little collection of canvases which, grouped historically, would quite adorn an up-country museum. At the Metropolitan Museum, for example, lack of space has relegated to the storeroom many pictures of great interest: a capital Goya and an extraordinary fruit piece attributed to Velasquez may be instanced. Would not these pictures be more useful at Worcester, Norwich, Buffalo, or any other town with its museum, than awaiting the completion of a new building at Central Park? Certain important branches of art lend themselves admirably to miniature representation. A case of medals and a packing-box of small bronzes, supplemented by photographs of monumental compositions, would make Renaissance sculpture more vivid to a community than a great collection of dull casts. Textiles, again, might easily be sent about, and could not fail to affect our own designing favorably. Metal work of all sorts is designated for such use, and certain forms of faïence—precisely those most applicable to our own manufactures—may be transported without great expense or risk of breakage.

We need hardly say that such travelling collections should be not only planned by the central museum, but so completely labelled or catalogued that the local director need assume only the responsibility of custody. The considerable work that this adds at headquarters is repaid by the certainty that a few objects carefully chosen and fully described may be of greater educational value than the confusingly large exhibits in great museums. On the other hand, the best skill is required in arranging and labelling such collections, and, in addition, a very unusual tact and sense of what the average person needs to know and can take in. In fact, to do a little work of this kind would be quite as profitable to the cloistered connoisseur as teaching is to the scientific investigator. Moreover, the good will a museum may gain by relations of this sort is by no means a negligible asset. It extends widely its circle of possible benefactors, and recruits the student class, upon which, in the last analysis, all museums depend.

To museologists of the old school, who are shocked at a hint of removal of an object from its consecrated position in the showcase, the idea of lending anything to anybody will seem rank heresy. But in this matter the museums must simply catch up with the libraries. That veteran Cantabridgian, Prof. J. E. B. Mayor, told gleefully at his recent jubilee how once, when an undergraduate, daring to break into the sacred precincts of the university library, he was at once and indignantly put out by the outraged librarian. To-day, the Cambridge Library extends its hospitality to all the world, and, on proper requisition, even lends books to other libraries. Finally, a public museum which circulates its treasures is only doing what private collectors have long done willingly. Ten years ago the art association of a small New England college freely drew upon the priceless Japanese paintings of a well-known Detroit amateur and the etchings of a New York collector whose Whistlers practically made up the entire print section of the memorial exhibition at Boston last year. Such instances are by no means uncommon, and to discerning museum directors they point the way to loans equally liberal, but more carefully devised and directly educational. Undoubtedly, the new director of the Metropolitan Museum, under whose care the South Kensington Museum has done good work of this nature, will, as time serves, build up such a department of museum extension. Nobody knows better than he that for any museum the worst possible motto is, "Neither a borrower nor a lender be." Notable borrowers in the past, we hope it will not be long before all our great museums become also generous and discriminating lenders.

COLLEGE TUITION FEES.

The Yale Divinity School will not, it is announced, establish a tuition fee. The faculty has declared that such a step would mean the reduction of one-half in the number of students. So far as the Divinity School is concerned, the matter is temporarily settled; but the discussion of fees in other departments of the University still goes on briskly. At Harvard some one raises the question at least once a year. Week before last, for example, the *Evening Post* published an account of the movement to secure a large additional endowment for the college proper—$2,500,000 is the minimum, and $10,000,000 is mentioned as the possible goal. If Harvard cannot get this money, so the argument is often put, the limited income may force the increase of tuition fees. In most other Eastern colleges and universities, the authorities, when casting about for means to make both ends meet, are seriously asking whether the students should not bear a larger share of the burden.

Education costs much more than it did twenty-five or even fifteen years ago. The days when Mark Hopkins on one end of a log and a boy on the other were a first-rate college in miniature have long since passed. The libraries and laboratories which must now be maintained, even in a relatively small college, eat up the income of a million or two. Books are expensive in themselves; and the men and machinery for cataloguing and making them instantly accessible to a thousand students during fourteen hours of the day are not to be had for nothing. Laboratories with the latest apparatus in chemistry, physics, and all the branches of engineering are in some ways yet more expensive; for while a large number of books are as useful to the student of literature to-day as they were two hundred years ago, the scientific apparatus of two decades ago is valuable chiefly as a curiosity. To keep pace with the strides of modern science would almost drain the purse of Fortunatus. There is not a college of standing in America that could not expend from $50,000 to $100,000 annually merely in keeping up the efficiency of libraries and laboratories; and the larger institutions, like Harvard, Yale, Columbia, and the Western State universities, need far more.

Sound instruction cannot be provided by wholesale at cut rates. The expansion of a college, while it may reduce certain per-capita expenses of physical maintenance and administration, ought not to affect profoundly the per-capita cost of teaching. In a few courses twenty pupils can be handled as easily as ten; but if there is to be anything like personal attention and guidance, the professor in charge of a large course must have a stout corps of assistants to follow with care the work of individuals, correct their reports, theses, and examination papers, spur the lagging, and help the ambitious. A large course not thus thoroughly manned speedily degenerates into a "snap"—an academic Botany Bay. Experience at Harvard and elsewhere abundantly shows that the proportion between students and teachers must be held pretty steady if a university is to be "an alma mater, knowing her children one by one, not a foundry or a mint or a treadmill."

Moreover, the professor should not be asked to give his services for the pleasure of doing good. While we cannot accept the view that college teachers are, as a class, in the submerged tenth, heroically upholding a tradition of culture for the benefit of a world which neglects and starves them, we are sure they should be better paid. An increase of salaries from a third to a half throughout the country would be nothing more than justice; and it might, by attracting stronger men, improve the average of breadth and virility in our faculties.

While the demands for money are thus growing more insistent, the rate of interest is always falling. Harvard received 7.82 per cent. on her investments in 1871-72 and only 4.77 in 1903-04; and

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other college treasurers tell the same story. The relation between income from tuition fees and income from productive funds is exhibited in the following table which President Charles F. Thwing of Western Reserve University compiled for *Harper's Weekly* from the last report of the United States Commissioner of Education (1902):

Name.	Tuition fee in college.	Income usually from tuition fees.	Income from productive funds.
Hamilton College	$75	$14,000	$28,000
Hobart College	80	7,646	18,224
Colgate University.....	60	16,258	48,285
Cornell University.....100-125		285,284	407,113
Columbia University...	150	479,217	524,730
New York University..	100	152,995	50,438
University of Rochester	60	13,649	36,908
Union College.....	75	9,000	20,000
Syracuse University....	75	88,425	32,267

The figures from other States are similar. The student often contributes only from a third to a half of the money spent on his college training. The rest comes from the diminishing interest on productive funds.

As a matter of bare equity, he might be required to contribute more. If the lads who own automobiles and horses and who employ valets could be subject to a special levy—a tax on luxuries—the college and the boy as well might gain. A tax on laziness and incompetence is proposed by Prof. J. McKeen Cattell of Columbia in a recent issue of the *Popular Science Monthly*. He would have the students of lowest standing pay the highest fees. These suggestions, however, are more ingenious than practicable. A high fee would not disturb the rich, and, where there are many scholarships, it might not overload the ablest among those of narrow means. There is, however, grave danger of driving away the very persons who profit most by college. Neither Harvard nor Yale, for example, can afford to alienate any considerable number of those serious, hard-working, and intelligent undergraduates who come from what might be called "middle-class" families. They become the alumni of whom in later years the university is most proud. At this present moment they form the cleanest and most wholesome element in the body academic. It is their presence and favorable influence which make multi-millionaires, provided they be not also fools, willing to send their sons to college. Were a university by any stroke of malign fate to become in fact a "rich man's college," it would soon rank, as an educative force, with the New York Stock Exchange or the Waldorf-Astoria Hotel. For a college, as for a man, there is a possibility of gaining the world and losing one's soul.

MONUMENTS TO CRISPI.

FLORENCE, January 25, 1905.

"Blessed by his country, the mortal remains of Francesco Crispi enter the Temple of Glory January 12, 1905." (Inscription over the central door of San Domenico, the Sicilian Pantheon.)

In his biographical sketch of Crispi, insurgent, exile, revolutionist, and statesman, the late W. J. Stillman foretold that "Italy will build him a monument, and amongst those who will be most eager to decree it, will be those who most feared and assailed him when living." The first forecast has been fulfilled before the fourth anniversary of his death (August, 1901); the second partially. Two monuments were inaugurated in Palermo on the 12th instant, the fifty-seventh anniversary of the Sicilian Revolution of 1848. The one placed in the Pantheon, where Cardinal Celesia refused permission to inter him, is a purely Sicilian tribute, representing Crispi grasping the tricolored flag with the figure of Sicily; on one side a youth folded in the flag looking eagerly outwards, as seeking the new enemies who have yet to be conquered. The other monument, in bronze, eleven metres high, rises in the Piazza Francesco Crispi (formerly delle Croci). This represents the statesman, the minister of the monarchy elected by the plébiscites. The allegorical figures represent Monarchy clasping Sicily, who bears aloft the flag of Salemi, on which is inscribed, "Italy and Victor Emanuel: Garibaldi in his name Dictator." This was the first proclamation issued by Crispi's initiative the day after the landing of the Thousand at Marsala, so that, neither in the island nor on the continent should there be any doubt as to the programme of the Liberator. The other hand rests on the figure of continental Italy. On the base are inscribed the words, spoken in 1864, "Monarchy unites us," which, with the other words, "A Republic would disunite us," led to the sad rupture between Mazzini and his greatest unitarian apostle.

Thus clearly does the monument arise as a tribute of the monarchical conservatives, who, throughout four-fifths of Crispi's life, feared, hated, persecuted, and calumniated him with relentless, remorseless cruelty. If their fury abated during his last ministry, it was because the utter and universal chaos into which they had plunged the country after overthrowing him by their coalition cabal in 1891, clouded the brain of the statesman and rent the heart of the patriot, and led him actually to adopt their violent measures of repression and coercion, while their financial incompetence, resulting in a deficit of 177 millions, left him without a farthing to spend on remedial actions. And it is this coercionist period of his life that the conservatives began to illustrate and hold up as a model to Zanardelli and the young King, who realized that the Italians had suffered too much violence, injustice, and oppression to tolerate more from any one. Since the late election the conservatives have begun to realize that they may not always remain the predominant partner. More than one of their organs recall Crispi's resolute attitude, according all due liberty to the Church within its spiritual orbit, but never once allowing it to invade the province of the civil power. When he kept Parliament closed during the conclave of 1878, it was to prevent the Catholic world from interfering on the ground that "the Church was not free to exercise its lawful authority"; at the same time he warned the cardinals that, if they held the conclave outside of Italy, they would never be allowed to reënter the Vatican. While he permitted pilgrimages and jubilees, he also promoted the inauguration of the statue of Giordano Bruno, to accentuate the fact that the abolition of the temporal power signified the establishment of liberty of thought, of conscience, of discussion.

While the unextinguished rancor of the Republicans and the Socialists is intelligible, the rabid attacks of the Radicals are as disgraceful as they are inconsistent. Their chief organ, the *Secolo*, evokes anew all the old calumnies. That of bigamy was disproved by a judicial court, as his supposed marriage with Rosalie Montmasson in Malta was no marriage; hence, when he made the mother of his beloved daughter his wife by the civil law, he committed no illegality. Nor did he, as his calumniators assert, leave Rosalie "to pine in poverty and destitution," but provided for her during his lifetime, and left her 300 lire a month in his will. Nor did she ever sanction the efforts of his persecutors to blacken his name; refused from first to last to allow her name to be used, and, two months ago, surrounded by the chief survivors of the Thousand, she died, blessing her one and only love, regretting that, while in poverty she had been his guardian angel, in affluence she had become a thorn in his side, and, by her exactions, jealousies, and want of self-control, compelled him to choose between separation from her or total withdrawal from public life. As with Byron, Crispi's domestic misfortunes darkened his career. Even now his worshipped daughter, for whom all his sacrifices were made, has been compelled to obtain legal separation from Prince Linguaglossa, whom he chose as a husband, thinking thus to ensure her a happy future.

Of course, the Bank scandals are revived, and the Radicals, who have accepted the leadership of the chief offender, still designate Crispi as the "great public plunderer," though they cannot ignore the fact that the debts he had previously incurred or had allowed to be incurred were left unpaid during his ministry, and that when he died all his property was sequestrated by his creditors. Of course, they still accuse him of promoting and fomenting the African war, of precipitating the final disaster, but they have not a single proof to adduce. Mystery still shrouds the story. Baratieri was made the military scapegoat, but, after his acquittal by the military tribunal, he kept silence till his death, when all his papers were transferred to the State archives. Mr. Stillman affirms that King Humbert was alone to blame—that Crispi desired to retain Baratieri in Italy, and to send a general of higher rank in his stead; that the King refused, and urged on the aggressive war. There are many who look forward to the opening of Crispi's archives, sequestrated and sealed since August, 1901, to find confirmation of this; but they will assuredly be disappointed. The abnegation and devotion with which, in the name of Unity, he served the "kings of the plébiscites," will never be belied by any posthumous revelations.

Neither Republicans nor Socialists care for the reforms effected by Crispi, which the Radicals are bound to, but do not, respect. Hence their natural implacability, their scorn and derision of the "glorification of Crispi." But it is something gained

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that, with the exception of his latest and worst policy, his life as revolutionist and statesman is being vindicated. He will yet stand as a model patriot, and the good done in his lifetime will survive him, while from one point of view much of the evil effected has been buried in his grave. No present or future statesman will ever dare again to attempt to coerce a whole people, in Italy at least; while the mobocracy also is learning that neither shall they gain aught by violence. J. W. M.

MARGUERITE DE VALOIS.

PARIS, January 27, 1905.

There are many Frenchmen who know about Marguerite de Valois, the youngest daughter of Henri II. and Catherine de Médicis, and the first wife of Henri IV., only what they have learned in the amusing novels of the elder Dumas. I remember that in my younger days, a student being examined for the degree of *bachelier ès lettres* gave some details concerning the times of the Valois. The examiner asked him where he had found them; he answered candidly, in Dumas's 'Trois Mousquetaires.' As he could not cite any better source of information, he did not get his degree. It was rather hard on him, and I could not help remembering him when I saw on the title-page of a volume which has just appeared, 'La Reine Margot.' It is a very serious historical work, but the author found it necessary to give the popular name to his heroine, the famous princess who played such an important part in her day.

It is no easy task to write an impartial history of a princess who lived in troubled times, and had as many enemies as she had friends. There is an historical school which collects documents without showing much criticism in the choice of them. There are lying documents which are only worthy of contempt. Nobody has been the subject of more mendacious and libellous pamphlets than the unfortunate Queen Marie-Antoinette. These are kept in our National Library, in a special section, which is familiarly called "L'Enfer," a true inferno of ignoble productions which are never to greet the eyes of the general public. Marguerite de Valois, the beautiful "Reine Margot," cannot be judged solely by the testimony of the pamphleteers of her time. No more ought she to be judged by the partial eulogies of such men as Brantôme. The famous Pierre de Bourdeille, Seigneur de Brantôme, has left us, in one of the volumes of his amusing memoirs, a series of contemporary "Lives of the Illustrious Dames of France." Longest of all these is the Life of Marguerite. Brantôme gives the most glowing description of her beauty, her gowns, her manners. His account of the life and actions of the Queen is not very detailed, but is marked by his usual liveliness, and still deserves to be read; it is very partial, and is inspired by a sort of blind admiration, in which we discover, however, a touch of skepticism and of *parti-pris*.

The court of the Valois was the most brilliant in Europe; but Catherine de Médicis gave her children the worst possible education. She was sensual and superstitious, and surrounded herself with Italian adventurers, who brought to the court all their vices, their debauchery, the habitual use of poison and of assassination, their belief in occult sciences and astrology, their homicidal perfumery. Catherine inspired the massacre of Saint Bartholomew; she probably hastened the death of Jeanne d'Albret. The marriage of Marguerite de Valois with Henry of Navarre, which was intended to be a reconciliation of the Protestants and Catholics, was a purely political union. Marguerite did not like Henry of Navarre: she, however, was not herself an accomplice in the Massacre of Saint Bartholomew.

"I have heard a princess say," writes Brantôme, "that she saved the life of her husband in the Massacre, for undoubtedly he was proscribed and marked on the red paper (as they say), because it was declared that the roots must be taken out, such as the King of Navarre, the Prince of Condé, the Admiral, and other great personages; but the Queen threw herself on her knees before King Charles, her brother, to beg of him the life of her lord and master. The King granted this to her with difficulty, though she was his good sister. I have been assured that she bore the Massacre very impatiently, and saved several men, and even a gentleman of Gascony (it seems to me his name was Lerac), who, wounded as he was, came and threw himself under her bed when she was in it; and the murderers having followed him as far as her door, she ordered them away; for she was never cruel, but very kind, after the fashion of the daughters of France."

Brantôme adds that the pique between her and her husband arose more from religion than from anything else; but there were many causes for it, and it was a fact that they allowed each other a great degree of liberty. Marguerite was for a time taken by her mother to the Court of Navarre, but her heart was in the Court of the Louvre and she returned to Paris. Negotiations ensued with regard to her between the King of France and the King of Navarre, and she was obliged to return to Nérac. After the death of the Duke d'Anjou, she quarrelled openly with her husband, declared for the League, which was hostile to Henry of Navarre, and took possession, in the name of the League, of the town of Agen. She was driven from it by a revolt, and took refuge at Carlat. She remained some time in Auvergne, and the Marquis of Canillac made her prisoner and conducted her as such to the Castle of Usson. She contrived to take possession of it, and from a prison made it a safe retreat for herself.

Marguerite wrote Memoirs, which are now very rare. If we knew of her only what she says, and what Brantôme and another panegyrist, Father Hilarion de Coste, say, we should have to place her very high and only to praise her qualities. The other documents which give us light upon her character are not so flattering. M. Charles Merki says, however, justly:

"We certainly cannot imagine that Queen Marguerite was exactly the princess vaunted by Brantôme; neither that she led in the castle of Usson the austere life which Father Hilarion de Coste speaks of. Concerning conjugal virtue and fidelity—which it would have been a merit in her to stand up for with a husband like Henri IV.—Marguerite de Valois had no puritanical ideas other than those of her time, or of the world in which she had grown up and lived. But we cannot forget that, after her marriage, she became an object of hatred to the Protestants; that she was singled out by the writers of anecdotes whom her beauty, her wit, and her manners excited; and that, after her death, she was dragged in the mud, for reasons of state.

A pamphlet appeared in Edinburgh in 1574, under the title 'Le Réveille-matin des Français et de leurs Voisins,' which contains scandalous allusions to Marguerite and her brother, Charles IX. The principal source, however, of the stories told about her is the 'Divorce Satyrique,' a book which had a very large circulation and which still enters into the collections of bibliophiles. It has been attributed to Agrippa d'Aubigné; it appears, but with some important reserves, in the "Œuvres Complètes" of this writer edited in 1877 by Reaume and De Caussade. It was for a long time circulated only in manuscript form. M. Charles Merki calls it "an ignoble pamphlet, unworthy of the author of the 'Tragiques' and of the 'Histoire Universelle'"; nevertheless, it was largely used by Bayle and by most of those who wrote on Queen Marguerite. The anonymous writer places in the mouth of Henri IV. himself the recital of the facts which rendered his divorce necessary, and gives an account of the lovers, real or supposed, of Marguerite de Valois, with many extraordinary details. We find in the long list, with some unknown names, that of the Duke de Guise, of her three brothers, of La Môle, of Bussy, of M. de Mayenne, of the Viscount de Turenne. It is in the 'Divorce Satyrique' that we find a saying, often cited, of Charles IX.'s at the time of the marriage of Marguerite to Henry of Navarre: "In giving my sister to the King of Navarre, I give her to all the Protestants of the kingdom."

Anything, says M. Merki, may be believed when it is a question of the Duke de Guise and the last of the Valois, "but we ought not to take *à la lettre* the affectionate terms which were used by the brother and sister, the Duke d'Alençon and Marguerite." Pibrac testifies: "Our mode of writing nowadays is full of excesses; nobody uses simply the word love—one adds always extremely, infinitely, passionately, and such things. No brother writes to a sister, no sister to a brother, no servant to his mistress, who by a common error and fashion does not allow himself to go to extremes in language of the time, and does not forsake the path of duty and, I may say, of honesty." The whole literature of the time of Ronsard and of the Pleiad is full of this affectation and exaggeration.

The accusations against Marguerite de Valois have a more serious foundation in the 'Histoire Générale' of Scipion Dupleix, which comprises a History of Henri IV. and a History of Louis XIII. Scipion Dupleix was a Gascon writer, who was allowed to enter society under the protection of Marguerite. When she established herself in Paris in 1605, she gave him the rank of *maître des requêtes* in her hôtel, and let him into the details of her private life. After her death, Dupleix became the follower of Richelieu, obtained the title of Historiographer of France, and in 1630 published his historical work, in which he speaks of his benefactor in the severest terms. Bassompierre justly accused him of ingratitude. Richelieu, in his memoirs, passed on Marguerite de Valois a judgment which has the real tone of history.

Marguerite will always remain a very complex character. "Much good may be said of her," writes M. Merki, "and much evil, for, if she had true qualities, she exposed herself to much criticism by care-

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lessness, by the promptings of passion and contempt of opinion, by the conviction that her royal blood placed her above certain rules, and that she could allow herself anything." To the general public she will always remain the handsome Margot of the Court of Charles IX., who danced the *pavane* in the rooms of the Louvre with the young Duc d'Alençon; the humane princess who tried to save some of the victims of the Saint Bartholomew, and to whom, as we have seen, the King of Navarre probably owed his life.

Correspondence.

TWO NOTES ON SHAKSPEREAN SOURCES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Any item connected with possible sources of Shakspere's plays has a certain ephemeral interest even if it be not of value to the scholar. Whether the two notes which follow have any real significance in the determination of such sources, I am unable now to say, but, not having seen attention called to the facts, I state them for what they are worth.

The plot of "Measure for Measure" is undoubtedly the same as that of Whetstone's play, "Promos and Cassandra" (1578), which, like the same author's prose version of the incident in his 'Heptameron of Civill Discourses' (1582), may have been derived from Giraldi Cinthio, who wrote a tragedy, "Epitia," and a *novella* ('Hecatommithi,' Dec. 8, Nov. 5), on this subject. But as Shakspere has called his heroine Isabella, instead of Cassandra, it is usually assumed that he took the name from that of the teller of the tale in the 'Heptameron.' Now Isabel, the heroine of Robert Greene's "Never Too Late" (1590), has a very similar adventure (Greene's Works, ed. Grosart, viii., 144, ff.). Deserted by her husband, she is tempted and threatened by Bernardo, one of the burgomasters of the city of Caerbranck, but successfully resists him. He then has her brought before the council, of which he is executive head, and accused of adultery by a false witness whom he has suborned. Isabel is condemned and sentenced, but the witness suddenly repents of his perjury and confesses, whereupon Signor Bernardo is heavily fined and deposed from office.

It may be merely a coincidence that the name of the heroines in both tales should be the same, and that the name Bernardo should be rather close to that of Barnardine, the dissolute prisoner of Shakspere's play. But it is perhaps more striking that an unusual word is employed by both writers in the same connection. Greene writes (*ibid.*, p. 153): "Although he [Bernardo] knewe she did rightly *refell* his follie, and partly perceiued her counsaile cooled the extreame of his desires, yet the feare of God was so farre from him, that he prosecuted his intent." Shakspere employs this word "refell" only once in his works, where Isabel tells the Duke:

> "How I persuaded, how I pray'd and kneel'd,
> How he *refell'd* me, and how I replied" (*M. for M.*, v., 1., 93-4).

The second item referred to is even more trivial. It is well known that "The Taming of a Shrew," the anonymous play on which Shakspere based his comedy of similar title, was entered in the Stationers' Register May 2, 1594 (Arber's Trans., ii., 648). Now, on October 16 of the same year, Thos. Gosson and Joseph Hunte entered a ballad entitled "The Cooling of Curst Kate" (Arber's Trans., ii., 662). "Curst Katharine," "Kate the curst," and "Katharine the curst," are phrases familiar to us from Shakspere's play (i., ii., 128-9, and 184; ii., i., 187); but in a hasty examination of the older comedy I did not meet with any of them. Still, it is not a far cry from Kate the shrew to Kate the curst.

Robert Adger Law.

Harvard University, February 8, 1905.

Notes.

The Merrymount Press, Boston, will make for C. E. Goodspeed an exact reprint of 'The Bride,' "a hitherto unknown poem by Samuel Rowlands," from the supposedly unique copy in the Harvard College Library. Alfred Claghorn Potter, assistant librarian, supplies an introductory note. Of the 210 copies to be printed, 190 will be sold for the benefit of the College Library.

Fox, Duffield & Co. have nearly ready 'Old Masters and New,' essays in art criticism by Kenyon Cox, some twenty in all, collected from this artist's contributions to the *Nation* and other periodicals, and much revised and altered. Their range, in point of theme and view, is from the fifteenth century to the present day.

'Trees and Shrubs of Central Park,' by Louis Harman Peet (author of 'Trees and Shrubs of Prospect Park'), is now in the hands of the printer, and the author hopes to publish it early next April. On sixteen maps covering the Park two thousand trees and shrubs have been plotted. Explanatory tables and text descriptions accompany the maps, so that identification is easily effected.

We have received the illustrated prospectus and Part I., Volume I., of 'A History of English Furniture,' by Percy Macquoid (London: Lawrence & Bullen; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons). The work is to be a very stately quarto or square small folio, and Part I., running to page 48, including three plates printed in color separate from the text, is one-twentieth of the whole work, whose nearly one thousand large illustrations will include sixty plates in color. Four volumes will be devoted respectively to four periods, entitled "The Age of Oak," "The Age of Walnut," "The Age of Mahogany," "The Composite Age." The color-plate examples are very carefully wrought and highly successful, made by some modern process, seemingly not chromolithography, and yet superior in its results to the "three-color process" as commonly displayed. The subjects are the carved oak credence belonging to Mr. Barry, "Sudbury's Hutch in St. James's Church, Louth, Lincolnshire," "Sir John Wynne's Buffet," and (in the prospectus) a very elaborate chest with dropping front, inlaid in the Dutch style and with wood of various colors. There is not very much text in what remains of the 48 pages. Evidently but little purely Gothic design exists among the furniture which Mr. Macquoid's patient investigations have brought to light. He seems to name the closing years of the fifteenth century as the epoch for the first half-dozen pieces, including Plate I.

The Burrows Bros. Co., Cleveland, begin their series of reprints of "Narratives of Captivities" with 'A Narrative of the Captivity of Nehemiah How in 1745-1747,' edited by Victor H. Paltsits from the copy in the Lenox Library (1748). Mr. Paltsits supplies a topographical and historical introduction, and, on the bibliographical side, has occasion to criticise the faulty editing of Drake's 'Indian Captivities' (1839), which contained the first reprint of How. The tale, it must be said, is not very juicy. We could have wished a better proportion observed between the type employed for this volume and the page. There is a full index, and a facsimile title-page.

A book so slender that even its pages are unnumbered has been made up on the basis of an undated manuscript scrap, an "impromptu reminiscence" purporting to have been read at a meeting of the New England Historic Genealogical Society in Boston—'Lafayette in Brooklyn, by Walt Whitman' (New York: George D. Smith). The French patriot laid the corner-stone of the Apprentices' Library in Brooklyn, on July 4, 1825. Among other children whom he lifted over the rough grounds to a safe place for viewing the spectacle, was Whitman, who recalls Lafayette as resembling S. F. B. Morse's portrait now in our New York City Hall. A heliotype of this painting is accordingly provided, along with one of Cox's well-known photographs of the poet, and a facsimile of part of the reminiscence. John Burroughs supplies a preface. The mechanical execution of this trifle is dainty, and will commend it to the collectors for whom the edition has been limited.

Another slight, and wholly unpretentious, volume, quickly read, is Dr. J. W. Winkley's 'John Brown the Hero: Personal Reminiscences' (Boston: J. H. West Co.). The author was one of Mr. F. B. Sanborn's informants in preparing the Life of Brown. He was a boy in Kansas in 1856 when brought in contact with the partisan leader. His well-written narrative is restrained and manifestly truthful. Aside from his impressions of Brown, Dr. Winkley has little of importance to relate, though he participated in the capture of a camp of Missourian invaders. His chief service was as a guide in trackless prairies, having what he calls a "psychic sense" for going to the place or object sought—not orientation exactly. He also beats hollow the marvel of wireless telegraphy by telling of a mirage disclosing the enemies' camp so that it could be examined with the glass for all essential particulars. He is now a follower of Tolstoy, and his admiration for Brown is tempered by his present belief in peaceful instrumentalities. Mr. Sanborn furnishes an introduction, and there are photographic plates—one of the Adair log-cabin where John Brown viewed the body of his son Frederick, cruelly slain by Border Ruffians.

Under the perplexing name of 'The Medici Balls,' the Charterhouse Press of New York sends forth a handsome book by Anna R. Sheldon and M. Moyca Newell, telling of "seven little journeys in Tuscany." The "journeys" comprise the Mugello, Prato, Chianti, Lucca, Pistoja, Brancoli, and Barga. A trip to each of these spots, with

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Florence as a starting-point, is narrated in a chatty, discursive fashion, with a due amount of historical reminiscence and a vivid description of present conditions. The authors are well informed and appreciative, and their account will arouse envy in the hearts of countless lovers of Italy who are unable to go over the same road themselves. These may find, however, some consolation in the beautiful photogravures, over a hundred in number, which form the essential part of the volume. Landscapes, people, works of art, and especially buildings, are displayed in bewildering profusion and, for the most part, with good artistic effect; least successful are the reproductions of paintings. Clear, open type atones for the glossiness of the thick paper. There is an index and a full list of illustrations. For the benefit of the uninitiated it may be revealed that the "balls" of the title are those which constitute the Medici coat of arms, encountered by the travellers at every turn in their wanderings.

'Uganda's Katikiro in England' (London: Hutchinson & Co.) is a work absolutely unique in English literature. The *katikiro*, or prime minister, was sent to England in 1902 to represent his countrymen at the coronation, and his secretary, Ham Mukasa, on their return, wrote in his native language an account of what they saw and did, and published it in Uganda. At the request of friends in England who wished to know what were the impressions gained during the visit, it has been translated into English, and thus enables us to see how one born in the heart of savage Africa was affected by the wonders of civilization. It is characterized by a naïve simplicity which makes it exceedingly attractive as well as amusing. Again and again the writer says that the wonders he saw made him feel like a little child. Everything is described from the native point of view and compared with things familiar to his own people. For instance, "The great tube out of which the smoke [of the steamer] comes is as large or larger than the largest drum in Namirembe Cathedral." Organ pipes "are like the stem of a green banana." At Marseilles "they took us into a room which they called 'lifet.' They make a thing like the room in a house, and a man comes and turns a handle, and a great deal of water comes out, and when all the water is finished, the room goes up by itself." The Natural History Museum in London, to which they went on "a carriage of two stories which is called an omnibus," was especially interesting. "Any living thing that is not there has never been seen by an Englishman, or it would have been brought there, whether it were bird or creeping thing or precious stone; all things from all nations, whether white or black, were there. It was there that I saw the whale that swallowed the prophet Jonah, so that he should go to Nineveh." A biscuit factory in Reading is called "the stomach of England, because it feeds the whole land," and Cambridge is famous "because it teaches things that are much to be desired by all men on the earth, and though it is not as large as other cities, yet I call it 'the tutor of the world.'" The translator, the Rev. Ernest Millar, has wisely refrained from making many notes or correcting misstatements. Sir H. H. Johnston contributes an introduction, and there are several interesting portraits and characteristic scenes in Uganda.

The American Book Company publish (as an addition to the Williams & Rogers series) a handbook of 'Commercial Law,' by D. Curtis Gano; in the preparation of it the author has had the assistance of Samuel C. Williams. The objections to handbooks of this sort have often been stated, and are well known. They are law books only among business men, and are instructive in business only for lawyers. Nevertheless, they are so frequently met with that they are probably of greater use than critics suspect, as helps in teaching. The present author expresses the pious hope that his volume may guide his readers "to discern the ways that lead *from* litigation." The ground covered is very extensive, embracing contracts, sales, negotiable instruments, agency, bailment, partnership, corporations, insurance, real property, and even pleading and practice. The subjects have been arranged "in the order in which it is deemed advisable for the teacher to present them." Cases are cited with care, and, regarded as a text-book for instructors, Mr. Gano's volume will be found valuable. Possibly it may have a tendency to enable business men "to conduct their business dealings with an intelligent idea of their legal rights and limitations"; but this bright vision is clouded by the recollection of the Statute of Frauds and other obstacles.

The Providence Journal Company has published for private distribution a volume entitled 'Half a Century with the *Providence Journal*: Being a Record of the Events and Associates connected with the Past Fifty Years of the Life of Henry R. Davis, Secretary of the Company.' The book, as the title implies, serves the twofold purpose of expressing the appreciation of the editors for the lengthy service of a valued member of the staff, and furnishing a vehicle whereby many interesting events connected with the paper's growth for the past half century are related. In this latter field the exhibition of the paper's development from a party organ into an "independent" sheet, sketches of the editors, prominent staff-writers, contributors and correspondents, and accounts of the mechanical equipment and the methods of news-getting, make up a very readable survey. It is unfortunate that the book is not provided with an index.

The identification of the Alighieri house or houses in Florence has been a vexed problem for many years. We know that the family lived in the parish of S. Martino, and local tradition has pointed to some old buildings diagonally across the street from the church. In 1864 the Florentine authorities, wishing to corroborate the popular belief, appointed a commission to investigate the matter. This body presented, the next year, a long report, based on numerous ancient documents, accepting the traditional site. Although the members of the commission were not agreed, and their interpretation of the data seemed illogical, the report was generally received as authoritative, and was confirmed by an official manifesto in 1869. The whole mass of evidence has recently been scrutinized in detail by Giorgio Piranesi, who exposes the blunders of the commission in its translation of Latin deeds and its deductions from them, as well as its fundamentally erroneous idea of the Alighieri genealogy. According to him, the documents, rightly understood, far from substantiating the legendary claim, prove conclusively that the structures in question cannot have belonged to Dante or any member of his family. On the other hand, they afford some indication of a vanished Alighieri residence at the intersection of the Via de' Cimatori and the Via de' Magazzini, on the opposite side of S. Martino from the accepted location. As to the fate of Dante's own house, we have evidence that it was destroyed at the time of his banishment. Piranesi's researches, published last year in *L'Italia Moderna*, now appear, with plans and photogravures, in a dainty brochure entitled 'Le Case degli Alighieri' (Florence: Francesco Lumachi).

'Natur und Arbeit' is the title of a work, in two large volumes, by Prof. Alwin Oppel (Leipzig: Bibliographisches Institut; New York: S. Zickel), whose object is to give a history of human industry and a description of the present state of the productive and distributive activity of the human race. The author first reviews the natural wealth which nature offers to mankind; next traces from prehistoric times to the present day the gradual steps by which mankind, using this wealth and overcoming the natural obstacles placed in its way, has emerged from primitive barbarism and achieved civilization; and finally minutely exhibits the contemporary condition of agriculture, manufactures, and commerce in the various countries of the world. The book is a veritable encyclopædia of its subject, replete with facts and figures of all possible kinds, and illustrated with many maps and woodcuts, most of which are relevant to the subject-matter. The author has drawn for material on the most recent writers on history, archæology, science, geography, etc., and has brought together a mass of interesting information on an innumerable number of topics, ranging from an account of the domestic animals of the ancient Greeks and Romans to a modern establishment for turning out armor plate or the Chicago Union Stockyards. Merely to give a list of the subjects touched upon would occupy more space than is here available.

The recent International Geographic Congress is the subject of the opening paper in the *Annales de Géographie* for January. A summary of its general work is followed by a description of the excursion to the Rocky Mountains and Mexico, with plans and photographs. The writer, M. E. de Martonne, says that the European geographers all "felt in some way the rhythm of the American life, feverish and hurried, ignorant of the morrow, concentrating all its energies on the present. Contact with the American geographers has been particularly instructive." It seems to him curious, however, that "in this country of intense economic life, endowed by the Census Office with the most complete and most precious statistical material, human geography appeared to be ignored." Another product of the congress is an account of the internal commerce of this country by Prof. H. Hauser, which he introduces with the statement that the extreme variety of our prod-

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ucts is the cause of "le protectionnisme yankee." The vegetation of Japan and its influence upon the life of the people are most appreciatively treated by M. Revon. Japan's wealth in this respect is extraordinary, for, without reckoning the mosses, lichens, etc., there are 2,743 species of trees and plants, including 168 species of forest trees. Naturally, the Japanese are a nation of vegetarians, and a man's wealth is shown by the kinds of wood which have been employed in the construction of his house, its furniture and decorations. Nor is it surprising that to the arts of painting and sculpture these nature lovers should add the arts of making a garden and a bouquet.

The Tercentenary of 'Don Quixote' was celebrated in London on January 25 by a special meeting of the British Academy, at which Mr. Fitzmaurice-Kelly read the paper. Among other things he said that "the internal evidence of the book showed that Cervantes began hesitatingly and tentatively, intending to write a comparatively short story. The existence of the accomplished Sancho Panza was an afterthought. The idea probably occurred to Cervantes just after penning the innkeeper's statement that knights were commonly attended by squires." As regards the influence of the story in our day he says: "It is certain that imperfect translations suggested the characters of Sam Weller, the cockney variant of Sancho Panza, and of Colonel Thomas Newcome." Mr. Bryce, referring to the fact that history, not literature, was a subject within the range of the Academy, justified the celebration by the fact that the book was "universal," and "from its pages was to be learnt more of history than by reading a dozen chronicles."

An international congress for chemistry and pharmacy will be held in connection with the international exposition in Louvain next year. The Belgian Government has already promised financial aid, and the Chemical and the National Pharmaceutical Associations are arranging for the Congress, which will meet at the end of July and will sit in eleven sections. The work has already been distributed, and savants from many lands will participate. Professor Gilkinet of Louvain is the chairman of the committee of arrangements.

In Germany the writings of President Roosevelt are finding many readers; his 'Conquest of the West' has been translated for some time, and recently two new volumes have appeared in German garb, the 'Jagdabenteuer eines Farmers,' and the 'Jagden in Amerikanischer Wildniss,' and are reported to be selling rapidly. General Lieutenant von Liebert, in a recent discussion of these works, declares that they are the product of a "grossdenkenden Vollmenschen," and finds in the American President a type of the kind of man represented in Emperor William II.

In university circles in Germany a new phase of the old problem of general versus technical training is attracting a good deal of attention, chiefly on account of a petition, signed by hundreds of students in the philosophical faculty in Berlin, asking for the establishment of a special examination at the end of four semesters, to be called a "Philosophicum." This examination, after the analogy of the Physicum in the medical faculty, is to be, for candidates for the position of teachers in the secondary schools, the conclusion of their general studies. The examination is to cover German, religion, philosophy, and pedagogics.

—The Catalogue of the Exhibition of Pewter at Clifford's Inn Hall, London, held last spring, compiled by H. J. L. Massé, shows marks of hasty preparation. References are constantly made to 'Pewter Plate,' by the same author, reviewed in these columns last April; in fact, the Catalogue may be considered a supplement to that work. With all its shortcomings, necessitating "addenda" and "corrigenda," and with an index leaving much to be desired, the Catalogue is still an addition to our scant knowledge of the subject of old pewter. The vessels described, with few though good illustrations, are mostly of English manufacture, enough of Continental make being noted to mark the difference between the plain surfaces and bold outlines of the former, and the more highly decorated foreign ware better suited to the silversmith's art. In accounting for this distinction, Mr. Massé asserts that "the English workmen, working as they did under definite restrictions and still more definite supervision, were obliged to draw the line at any downright imitation of goldsmiths' and silversmiths' work." He is especially severe on the "grotesque inanities and the intricate yet imbecile nothings" that have been produced of late years, in an attempt to revive the art; and the questions whether the revival of the art of the pewterer is likely to succeed, and whether the wares now being made are equal in quality and design to the work of the past, can be answered only by a careful study of such examples as those given by Mr. Massé. As director of this, the first exhibition of its kind, Mr. Massé had the coöperation of the Pewterers' Company and of the most prominent collectors in England. The last vessel on the list is one of the prison cups or beakers engraved with a nail by Baron von Trenck while in prison in Magdeburg, and dated 1763, the year of his release. The Catalogue is expensively made, with a consequently limited edition, and can be obtained solely of the compiler, whose address is No. 37 Mount Park Crescent, Ealing, W., London.

—A tale almost colloquially told, and packed with adjectives characteristic of the rhetoric of the stump, is Col. Charles T. O'Ferrall's 'Forty Years of Active Service' (Washington: The Neale Publishing Co.). An autobiography, it properly includes an extremely creditable post-bellum career that embraced legislative and judicial duties in Virginia and twelve years in Congress, and culminated in the governorship of the author's State. He had entered early and stayed late in the Virginia cavalry, and the reminiscences of those four years have the greatest interest, whether for the veteran or for the youth who dreams of war. Three times he was seriously wounded, once directly through the chest, almost cutting the heart, but he was so full of fight that after Lee's surrender he failed to reach Johnston and help carry on the war only because that general also surrendered while he was still on the way. Col. O'Ferrall evidently depends on his memory, and there are various minor discrepancies with the formal records; but in one important incident he traverses a generally accepted belief. Lieut. John R. Meigs, a highly accomplished officer of engineers, was killed about 8 P. M. October 3, 1864, on the road near Harrisonburg, in the valley. Gen. Sheridan reported it as a murder, and ordered all the houses within an area of five miles to be burned. This is known as "the burnt district" to this day. Col. O'Ferrall gives a circumstantial account of a famous scout of that region, Frank Shaver, who had volunteered in the cavalry at the first call and was occupied in scouting near his native scenes. On this occasion, having two men with him, he suddenly encountered a mounted officer and two men, and sharp pistol firing on both sides resulted in the immediate death of one of Shaver's men and of Lieut. Meigs, and in the capture of the two Union soldiers. If that is correct, it was hardly ordinary bushwhacking. The character of the act depends upon the status of the slayers. Were they regular and uniformed scouts or irregular and irresponsible guerrillas? They certainly have always been believed to be the latter.

—Geologists in this country will hail with pleasure the publication, in English translation, of Suess's monumental work, 'Das Antlitz der Erde.' Volume I., which in its original form dates back to 1885, has recently been issued from the Clarendon Press (New York: H. Frowde), and does full credit, in method and typography, to the German publication. The translation is ascribed to Hertha Sollas of Newnham College, under the direction of Prof. W. J. Sollas of Oxford University. It is, indeed, fortunate that the translation of so important a work should have fallen to competent hands, and the announcement of the early issue of Volume II., towards the end of the year, to be followed in 1906 by Volume III., and shortly afterwards by the concluding volume of text, practically ensures a proper rendering of the entire treatise. No work on geology since the days of Lyell's 'Principles' has exerted so profound an influence upon geological thought as has Suess's 'Antlitz der Erde,' and no one has mastered the broad geographical facts that are associated with the science of the earth, the world-concept, in a manner at all comparable with his presentation. However open to question may be some of the theories or hypotheses advanced in this cyclopædia of knowledge, however incomplete may be the evidence on some points that are presented, the luminous survey of the relations of our planet's dominant features must for many decades of geological inquiry be an inspiration to the rising investigator and the guiding star to his researches. Suess has given to geology very largely what Darwin gave to biology—the new perception and the new inquiry. In the Sollas translation the notes and references originally at the end of the respective chapters become footnotes in their proper places, and this may justly be considered an improvement. Here and there we notice the use of terms which differ from what have come to be the recognized forms in American geological literature, but which may recommend themselves as useful—and in some cases, perhaps, improved—variants. Seeing how many have been the discoveries in geological science since the publication, twenty years ago, of the first volume (to which

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Professor Suess in a prefatory letter himself alludes), one might wish that the translator and editor had taken for their task, instead of the original German edition, the annotated and much later French edition of MM. Margerie and Bertrand. This would have supplied much new information of which the student is greatly in need.

—The American Baptist Publication Society, Philadelphia, publishes 'The Church Covenant Idea: Its Origin and Its Development,' by Champlin Burrage. The author's painful labor in amassing a large body of material does not seem to have been seconded by his ability to draw out from it any general conclusions of an impressive character. Altogether praiseworthy is his refusal to overwork the word "covenant" as it appears in the Bible as the germ of the covenant idea of the post-Reformation churches. More germinal appears to him the oaths taken by the early Christians and by Jewish "proselytes of the gate" to abstain from various immoralities. Indeed, whether or not there was any genetic relation between these early oaths and the later covenants, there was, in the earlier, distinct prefigurement of the later form, and this fact suggests the principal defect of Mr. Burrage's presentation. He has reproduced a great many covenants of the early Baptist and Congregational churches, but he is singularly blind to their most striking character, which is a negative one—their comparative freedom from dogmatic elements. They are, like the early Christian oaths, pledges of loyalty to standards of right living to a remarkable degree. Doubtless to some extent the dogmatic element was implicit in the assumption that the New Testament teachings were identical with the Westminster and other confessions of faith. The beginnings of the covenant idea are found among the German Anabaptists of the Reformation period. Mr. Burrage is very modest in the claim he makes for any Anabaptist roots of the Scotch covenants. These, culminating in the Solemn League and Covenant of 1643, were quite apart from the main course of the development of the covenant idea. They were all covenants to maintain a fixed order of belief and worship. Much prominence is given to Robert Browne, the English Independent, both with a view to depreciating his originality and emphasizing his systematizing skill. The reaction of American colonial covenants upon the mother country is made plain. The famous Half-Way covenant of the New England churches has that cursory treatment which its much threshing heretofore makes right. In conclusion, it is confessed that "the covenant idea has ceased almost entirely to have for us the great significance it had for the early New England colonists."

—Mr. Charles Francis Adams has expressed the opinion that the ideal historian of the future, having prepared for his *opus* by writing effective monographs, will finally give the public the residuum of all his studies and reflections in such directness and compactness of form as the public can manage to cope with. Mr. J. H. Rose, in his 'Napoleonic Studies' (Macmillan), follows a reverse process. Having already published his 'Life of Napoleon' in two modest but weighty volumes, he now offers the world a certain number of chips from his Napoleonic workshop. The chapters of this volume have already appeared in various magazines, but, as each one of them bears directly on some phase of the Emperor's career, they make up a fairly compact series of essays. Several of the subjects chosen are extremely attractive, as may be seen from the following titles: "Wordsworth, Schiller, Fichte, and the Idealist Revolt against Napoleon," "The Religious Belief of Napoleon," "Britain's Food Supply in the Napoleonic War," "The Prussian Coöperation at Waterloo," and "The Detention of Napoleon by Great Britain." Mr. Rose's essays are marked by the same wealth of information and carefulness of statement which appeared in his book. He does not dogmatize for the sake of amusing his readers by a sharp saying, and inclines to caution whenever he ventures to put forth a generalization. This quality of his style is well illustrated by his concluding remarks on Napoleon's religious views: "The probability would seem to be that he wavered between materialism and theism, inclining more and more to the latter belief as the years wore on, but never feeling for religion the keen interest that he always manifested for the arts of war and of government. Richly gifted as he was in all that pertained to the life of action, and by no means lacking in originality and taste in the spheres of philosophy and literature, his nature was singularly barren on the side of religion. His best certified utterances on this topic are those of the politician rather than the believer." Another very interesting paper relates to the Prussian coöperation at Waterloo. In former years, controversy on this subject has usually ranged itself around the value of the direct assistance that was afforded by Ziethen's corps, coming in on Wellington's left at the close of the battle. But at present the discussion tends more and more to hinge upon the character of such indirect assistance as was afforded by Bülow between 4:30 and 6:30 P. M. It is now clearly made out that the German attack on the village of Planchenoit involved the detachment from Napoleon's main army of 14,000 excellent troops, who, but for that, might have added decisive weight to the last charge of the Guard upon Wellington's right centre.

—A double memorial to Friedrich III., the second German Emperor, was made public on the 18th of last October in a bronze equestrian statue and the Kaiser Friedrich Museum. This is the second memorial to the present Emperor's father in the new Berlin. As to the externals of these monuments the art world expresses itself with some reserves, but does not go so far as a year ago, when the statue before the Brandenburg gate was styled generally "the white horror." The new memorials, like the Reichstag building, suffer from their situation. The latter can be approached only from behind, the new Museum only from the side; while, for the statue, though the horse is finely modelled, the only free view of it presents the back of a uniform and a horse's tail. Rudolf Maison was the sculptor, and Ihne, chief court architect, the designer of the building. The three-cornered plot of ground on which the Museum rests presented some difficulties, as it is on the Spree Island, and hemmed in by the city railroad on one side, and on the other two by the arms of the Spree; but Mr. Max Osborn, writing in *Die Nation*, thinks this fact should have called out more originality from the architects, and not driven them back on all the historic devices of late Renaissance. The interior arrangements, however, evoke more praise, and introduce some odd effects, rich in variety, demanded indeed by this same ground plan; and the director, Wilhelm Bode, and his assistant, Max Friedländer, by mingling art works of different sorts, paintings, sculptures and small works, in rooms where door frames, ceilings, cases, etc., have the decorative character of the period, have established model halls that will serve as types wherever such material may be had. So the Rubens room is a masterpiece, as a whole and in relative effects; and striking also are the hall for the Raphael Gobelins, the wall where Raphael's Madonnas add to each other's glories, the Titian hall, and the double room containing Botticelli's Madonnas, Signorelli's, and Mantegna's "Presentation in the Temple." Berlin has never known before what treasures it had in its old museum. Great praise is due to Director Bode for the collection. He has made Berlin's money flow out for art objects in an astonishing way, and kindled the joy of collectors no less. No one before him has had such skill. Of the new acquisitions one must mention the James Simon cabinet of Italian Renaissance art works of all kinds, the Adolf Thiem hall of Netherland masterpieces, and the Wesendonck gallery—the last at present a loan.

LOVE'S LABOR'S LOST.

Love's Labour's Lost: A New Variorum Edition of Shakspere, edited by Horace Howard Furness, M.A., (Harvard) Ph. D. Vol. XIV. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. 1904.

Editing "Love's Labour's Lost" calls for noble fortitude. The editor, however enthusiastic he may be for his author, can hardly shake off altogether the dread lest both play and editor fall under the ban of the fatal letters three writ large. Such misgiving ought not to be. The play, though assuredly not of Shakspere's best, as assuredly is not of his worst. On the contrary, there is in it a peculiarly happy audacity, a half-consciousness of youthful power, which fascinate the reader able to penetrate the thin cloak of verbal conceit and piled-up rhyme and grotesque situation. This estimate we catch glimpses of in the remarks of William Winter, Dowden, Walter Pater, cited at pages 337, 362, 365. The true estimate has not yet been definitively formulated, though Moulton comes very near it in his 'Shakespeare as a Dramatic Artist' (third edition), a book, by the way, not in Dr. Furness's list of works quoted from. This is to be regretted, for Moulton's treatment of "Love's Labour's Lost" in parallel with "As You Like It" is illumining and helpful.

What is the theme—to use a much-abused phrase, the "central idea"—of the play? Usually the reader, tickled by the word-fence and the glitter of Armado and Holofernes, has erred to the extent of looking upon the play as a satire of Elizabethan foibles. This is to overlook Ben Jonson's truism, that Shakspere was not of an age. The theme of "Love's Labour's Lost" is

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not the satire of an age, but satire for all time, the sharp yet kindly ridicule of pedantic, affected Celibacy turned to naught at the first brush with Reality. Can we imagine anything more absurd than the spectacle of four young "bloods" in the heyday of manly vigor forswearing everything but books and study for three mortal years? Put thus baldly the absurdity is palpable. So are the pound-of-flesh bargain and Lear's partition of his kingdom palpably absurd. But the dramatist's cunning hoodwinks us; it hoodwinked even the astute Biron into half-hearted assent. From now on we have the inevitable conflict. The King and his men are shams; the Princess and her ladies, quippish and snippish though they be, are not shams: life to them is healthful earnest. Shakspere intended to satirize, not the Renaissance nor the Elizabethan nor any period in particular, but the perennial folly of trying to withdraw from the world while remaining an integral part of it.

So much for the main theme. How is it with the minor groups of characters: Armado, Moth, Jaquenetta and Costard; Nathaniel, Holofernes and Dull? Here, if anywhere, we may look for local and contemporary hits. Jaquenetta, Costard, Dull appear and reappear on Shakspere's stage; though well drawn, they are types rather than individuals. With Armado and Holofernes the case is different. They are not types, they are not even individuals representative of classes; to our way of thinking they are thinly disguised portraits, drawn from originals more or less familiar to the well-informed playgoer of the day. At this point we part company with our editor, very reluctantly. Precisely who were the originals, we do not profess to have discovered; but that there were originals, we cannot help believing. At page eight Dr. Furness records his protest: "May I be permitted respectfully to say that I find it almost impossible to believe that an audience in Shakspeare's day, or in any other, could, while the play was in action before their eyes, piece together such fleeting allusions . . . and make therefrom specific characters." Dr. Furness seems to us to put the stage of 1900 in the place of the stage of 1600. Playgoers of the Bankside were not playgoers of Longacre; they did not go to the show as a relief from a day in stocks or town-shopping or from a heavy club dinner,

> "Und, was das Allerschlimmste bleibt,
> . . . vom Lesen der Journale."

To the Elizabethan the play was a mirror of the world, to show "the very age and body of the time his form and pressure;" the actors "are the abstract and brief chronicles of the time: after your death you were better have a bad epitaph than their ill report while you live." Shakspere, speaking through Hamlet, felt that much at least, however much more he may have felt which transcended the form and pressure of the time. We need not hold with Fleay that Holofernes is drawn from Bishop Cooper, we may put aside summarily the identification of Armado with Lyly as preposterous, yet we need not fear to admit that a quick-witted spectator of 1600 was able to make a good deal out of fleeting allusions—perhaps that was what he went to the play for. And if his knowledge or his divination failed, surely he might count upon a kind neighbor to pass him the word.

Fleay would identify Armado with Lyly, and we do not hesitate to dub the attempt preposterous. In general, altogether too many words have been wasted upon Lyly and Euphuism in Shakspere. Even our patient editor must have groaned more than once, we suspect, over his pages 348-350; we fancy we detect a sign of relief in his parting remark: "Possibly, the last word on Lyly and Euphuism has been said in an essay bearing this title, written by Clarence Griffin Child, . . . wherein Euphuism is subjected to a microscopic analysis which will probably suffice for all time." The defect of Child's essay is that it is too microscopic—it loses sight of the wood in the trees; besides, it has altogether too much of the infallibility air of the Munich school. Should any honest reader, bewildered in this world of words, ask what is this mysterious Euphuism, we would answer: the style of Lyly's "Euphues." And to the inevitable further question, what is the style of "Euphues," we would answer: Read, if not the 446 pages of Arber's reprint, any twenty or thirty pages of Landmann's little volume of selections; better still, read Lyly's "Campaspe" in Gayley's 'Representative English Comedies.' Having thus formed your own definite impression of the Euphuistic style, judge for yourself whether you can fit it into "Love's Labour's Lost," or anything else of Shakspere's.

Yet we should not reject all connection between Shakspere and Lyly. The younger dramatist, we suspect, learned a good deal from the elder in the line of brisk dialogue and sparkling repartee. To readers unfamiliar with the earlier drama, the point can scarcely be made clear without more discussion than we have space for. But of readers who are familiar with dramatic history we need only ask, Where in the drama before Shakspere do you find anything like brisk dialogue and repartee except in the writings of Lyly? Further, the grotesque contrast between Armado and Moth derives somewhat at least of its verve from "the lovely, loving pair of friends," Sir Thopas and Epi, in Lyly's "Endymion." True, the comic contrast of unwieldy pomposity with elfish pertness is very old on the English stage; we find it in the Cain and Garcio of the Towneley mysteries, in the Jupiter and Merry Report of Heywood's "Weather." But the extravagant love of Sir Thopas for Dipsas seems to have prompted the love of Armado for Jaquenetta.

There has been much cudgelling of wits over the date of composition of the play. All the thrusts and parries, reproofs valiant and counter-checks quarrelsome, are duly recorded in pages 324-341, with an obvious, if suppressed, editorial *non liquet*. We fancy Dr. Furness viewing the whole question, as he advises us to view the "lost" quarto, "with one auspicious and one dropping eye." We merely adventure a mild surprise that he should not have ruled out with a curt dictum every inference drawn from the date of *publication* of Sidney's 'Arcadia,' 1590 (see pp. 325, 330). The date of publication of the 'Arcadia' cannot possibly figure as a *terminus a quo*, for the sufficient reason that the 'Arcadia' circulated freely in manuscript several years before it was given to the public in print; it was a sort of Elizabethan 'Christabel.' In like manner 'The Defence of Poesie' was known and read long before its publication (1595). Consequently, Dr. Furness's argument that the 'Defence' could not have furnished any hints for our play is not valid. That it did furnish any is of course highly improbable.

"Love's Labour's Lost" is not the product of the dramatist's maturity; on that point all are agreed. Is it, on the other hand, a firstling, possibly *the* firstling? This seems to be the view of Hertzberg and even of Furnivall (pp. 333-335). The view rests in the main upon metrical criteria. Hertzberg figures out less than four and a half per cent. of feminine rhymes; Furnivall lays stress on the large number of doggerel lines and alternate rhymes: "The metrical facts are those which to me settle the earlierness of *L. L. L.* over the *Errors*." Since metrical facts are to determine priority, by all means let us have them, only let us test them in the concrete and not by rule of thumb. We put side by side a passage from "Love's Labour's Lost" and a passage from the "Errors." First from Biron's great speech:

> "From women's eyes this doctrine I derive;
> They are the ground, the books, the Academes,
> From whence doth spring the true Promethean fire.
> Why, universal plodding prisons up
> The nimble spirits in the arteries,
> As motion, and long-during action, tires
> The sinewy vigor of the traveller."

Now for the "Errors":

> "A league from Epidamnum had we sail'd,
> Before the always wind-obeying deep
> Gave any tragic instance of our harm.
> But longer did we not retain much hope;
> For what obscured light the heavens did grant,
> Did but convey unto our fearful minds
> A doubtful warrant of immediate death."

Surely this is no improvement upon Marlowe's

> "Holla, ye pampered Jades of Asia."

It has not even got beyond the stilted strut of "Gorboduc." Compared with such pedantic stuff, Biron's speech has almost the directness, the elemental spontaneity of Portia and Prospero.

A few words upon the play as a whole and its acting possibilities. Our readers may contrast the opinion of Gildon (p. 327), "—since it is one of the worst of Shakspeare's plays, nay, I think I may say the very worst," with Sidney Lee's statement (p. 346): "'Love's Labour's Lost' was one of the most popular of Shakspeare's comedies on the Elizabethan stage for some years after its first production." The proof of a pudding, says the proverb, is in the eating thereof; the proof of a play is in the acting. Those of us who had the good fortune to see Daly's representation of "Love's Labour's Lost" in March, 1891, will not forget it. To the audience the performance was a revelation; from beginning to end there was not only wit and charm, there was "go." Armado became a solid reality; even Holofernes, one of the most difficult rôles in Shakspere, became irresistibly droll. The master-effort, however, was Biron's great speech,

> "Have at you, then, affection's men-at-arms."

Mr. George Clarke's sonorous, modulated voice, his exquisite emphasis, his clear conception and rendering of Biron's intense directness, were enough to carry away any audience. Such a performance ought to remove the last lingering suspicion of the playwright's juvenility.

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The erudition packed away in the volume before us is incommensurable in terms of reviewing. Fortunately we are beyond the necessity of praising. We can only thank the editor for his untiring single-heartedness, for the lucidity with which he has disposed his huge material; above all, for the fine shrewd humor which lurks in every page. It is one thing to be steeped in lore, quite another to keep clear of extravagance.

THE TOWER OF PELÉE.

The Tower of Pelée: New Studies of the Great Volcano of Martinique. By Angelo Heilprin, F.R.G.S. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1904.

Before the eruptions of 1902, the summit of Mont Pelée encircled a crateral pit about half a mile in diameter, which, like the Somma crater of Vesuvius at the dawn of the Christian era, was a rarely visited wilderness overgrown with vines and shrubs. At the bottom of this depression, from 1,000 to 2,000 feet below its dentate rim, lay the little basin known as L'Étang Sec, opening to the south, through a great V-shaped breach in the crater-wall, upon the city of St. Pierre, four miles away.

The first observers to ascend the mountain after the destruction of the city on May 8, 1902, found the former basin of L'Étang Sec occupied by what seemed to them a cone of lava blocks and lapilli, but which Professor Lacroix later showed to be a domical mass (*bourrelet*) of extremely viscous lava. The dome rose until, in July, 1902, it overtopped the rim of the ancient crater. About this time Dr. T. A. Jaggar, jr., noted a fin-like projection from the dome, with a height which he estimated at 200 feet. The structure aroused no great interest and was destroyed a few days later.

On the 15th of October, Professor Lacroix, from the brink of the crater, saw a dominant point or spine jutting from the jagged surface of the dome. This spine rose at the rate of twenty or thirty feet a day until, notwithstanding continued losses by disintegration, in March, 1903, it towered more than a thousand feet above the remains of Morne de la Croix, the highest point on the rim of the original crater. It has been estimated that, had no fragments fallen from this obelisk, it would have attained a height of 3,000 feet. The material of the spine was solid lava, thrust bodily from the throat of the volcano. Steam issued from the mass; and its rifted sides, whence fragments were continually falling with a clinking sound on the dome below, revealed glimpses of an incandescent interior. During the month of May the spine rapidly disintegrated, and in August, although the supporting dome continued to rise, the great pinnacle had crumbled away. It is this remarkable structure that Professor Heilprin has described as the "tower of Pelée." A second and smaller spine rose on September 8, 1903, but was destroyed nine days later.

Had the gorge of the Rivière Blanche not opened directly from the old crater, or L'Étang Sec, upon the city of St. Pierre, the eruptions of Mont Pelée, great as their interest to volcanists, might have attracted merely passing attention from the world at large. But the swift rush of the fatal cloud upon the scarcely awakened city, and the almost incredible destruction wrought in a few moments within its dark folds, converted what, in comparison with convulsions such as those of Krakatoa or Bandaisan, was a minor eruption, into a calamity so terrible as to move deeply the imagination and sympathy of the civilized world. It is in the wide and sympathetic interest stirred by the tragic fate of St. Pierre that Professor Heilprin's volume finds its justification. Its author is a man of versatile scientific attainment, a general naturalist and geographer rather than a geologist or volcanologist, and with the journalist's eye for effective (albeit not always essential or accurate) details. A thoroughly characteristic passage is that describing his first glimpse of the tower.

"Shortly before two o'clock the opportunity for which we had so impatiently waited seemed finally to arrive. Clouds and vapors died down to one side, and the great tower, its crown hanging at a dizzy height above, began to unfold. Piece by piece was added to it—purple, brown, and gray—until at last it stood abreast of us virtually uncovered from base to summit. 'Look!' I shouted to my companion, and my words failed me for the magnificence of the view that presented itself. The spectacle was one of overwhelming grandeur, and we stood for some moments awed and silent in the shadow of this most impressive of mountain forms. Nature's monument dedicated to the 30,000 dead who lay in the silent city below, it rose up a huge monolith, 830 feet above the newly constructed summit of the volcano, and 5,020 feet above the Caribbean surface—a unique and incomparable type in our planet's wonderland."

Professor Heilprin's hypothesis of the origin of the great spine is not that which finds most acceptance among geologists. He maintains that the tower is the ancient solidified core or stopper of the volcano, which has been loosened from its resting-place and upheaved by "interior volcanic stress." His argument, however, scarcely accords with what seems to be the true interpretation of his own descriptions. He regards the solidification of lava as a simple process of cooling, as in the formation of ice from water. But it is certain that the molten material from the earth's interior, which we technically call magma, is a chemically complex solution heavily charged with occluded gases, chiefly steam. That relief of pressure and expulsion of these gases are important factors in solidification is well established. Indeed, as Professor Doelter has recently suggested, it is likely that, under certain not improbable conditions of temperature and pressure, an ascending column of lava may become viscous or partly solid at an intermediate stage on its way to the surface, and regain its original fluidity at a still higher level. Professor Arrhenius, the eminent Swedish chemist and physicist, has recently discussed in a masterly way the probable constitution of the earth. He reaches the conclusion that about one-half the mass of the globe, or 80 per cent. of its radius from the centre outward, is probably metallic iron—but iron so intensely hot and so enormously compressed that it is physically a gas with the rigidity of a solid. An additional 15 per cent. is occupied by a spherical zone of similarly compressed gaseous magma, which grades outwardly into a zone of liquid magma amounting to 4 per cent. of the radius. Finally, there is the solid crust, with a probable thickness of about 1 per cent. of the total distance from the surface to the centre of the earth.

Accepting the view that there can be no volcanic action without telluric gases, Professor Arrhenius believes that the steam thrown off during eruptions has been derived from the oceans. He regards the ocean bottom as a semi-permeable membrane through which water under pressure descends into the earth. In its descent the water becomes heated, and finally, as steam, reaches the zone of liquid magma and is absorbed. It is this absorbed steam that supplies the explosive force of volcanic eruptions. According to the same authority, the physics of the eruption are closely analogous to those exemplified in the activity of a geyser.

It seems fairly certain that most volcanic eruptions are due to the expulsion of gases from magma that, by relief of pressure, has become suddenly over-saturated with its volatile constituents. This being conceded, the conclusion that, at some point in the volcanic conduit, lava, instead of being blown into fragments at the moment of eruption by the explosive expansion of its occluded gases, will, on relief of pressure, merely expand and solidify as rock-froth or pumice, seems inevitable. In other words, there must be an intermediate state between lava expelled from the crater as dust and the liquid magma below. That the spine was composed of pumiceous or vesicular lava solidified in this manner within the volcanic throat, was suggested by Mr. G. K. Gilbert, who supposed that the solidification was due merely to the absorption of heat by the work of expansion. It is probable, however, that chemical forces were at least equally potent in determining the passage of the magma into a solid upon the expulsion of part of the gases. The "burnt-out" cindery appearance of the spine, "the whole looking much like a furnace product," is a feature that Professor Heilprin emphasizes in support of his view, but which is perhaps suggestive rather of the more generally accepted explanation—that the tower was an extrusion of recent, solid andesitic lava.

In the concluding chapter the causes of volcanic action are discussed with particular reference to the Antillean region, where, as Professor Suess long ago pointed out, the earth's crust is under conditions of stress highly favorable to volcanicity. As the author well shows, the volcanic paroxysms in this vast area, stretching for 1,800 miles from Central America to the Windward Islands, are so obviously coördinated as to demand for their explanation a condition of regional instability of which the subsiding floor of the Gulf of Mexico is one manifestation. "It was not without reason," says Professor Heilprin, "that Milne advanced the view that the earthquake of Quezaltenango was the real initiator or instigator of the disturbances that followed rapidly upon it; it took the lid off the boiling pot, and the pot exploded."

It is now generally admitted that volcanic activity cannot be due to a sudden influx of sea water through open fissures to the earth's interior. Whether, as Professor Arrhenius suggests, the sea bottom is semi-permeable to water which is ultimately absorbed by molten magma at great depth; or whether, as Professors Suess, Tschermak, and Doelter maintain, the water is original in the magma and is the

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primal source of the oceans, is a moot question. But the author's statement that the problem of the source of volcanic water offers little fruit is perhaps rather pessimistic. The work of Suess on hot springs; the suggestion of Professor Tschermak that volcanism is a cosmic phenomenon, occurring independently of oceans—in the sun for example; and modern work on the origin of ores, all encourage us to believe that the fascinating and recondite problems of the earth's interior will be slowly solved.

As minor defects in Professor Heilprin's work may be mentioned a tendency to introduce irrelevant matter, as a discussion of the origin of the Sahara, and the use of such misleading expressions as "fed with volcanic fire," "burnt-out cinder masses," and "blue puffs of sulphur." In giving the results of Professor Moissan's analysis of fumerole gases from St. Pierre, the author curiously omits nitrogen, which formed 55 per cent. of the whole. The volume is well printed, and is attractively illustrated by twenty-three half-tone plates, of which all but five or six are germane to the tower of Pelée.

The Amateur Spirit. By Bliss Perry. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1904.

The amateur, the *amator*, "the man who loves," has always taken for granted a certain superiority to the professional. A young Greek at Athens when the Sophists were teaching the gilded youth a method which was to make them seem masters of every trade, blushed hotly if one implied that he might put his training to a professional use. Public opinion in those days gave the precedence to the amateur. If he has any such precedence to-day, it is because he takes it himself from a society too busy to dispute it. It is only in athletics now that the professional suffers any social disadvantage, and for that he has very solid compensations.

That "veiled hostility between the man who does something for love which another man does for money" (Mr. Perry is perfectly clear though his grammar is somewhat amateurish), the author regards as the instinctive reaction of the spirit of man against the dangers of the professional habit of mind. The amateur is afraid of a civilization that "encourages men to approach life from one side only." We should be inclined to think that it is for himself that he is afraid. In all the nice balancing of the first essay, which gives the title to his book, Mr. Perry may betray his love for the amateur; but the professional has his respect. How fatal the amateur spirit can be when it lays hold of a nation, was proved by the Boer war, when England, that "nation of amateurs," paid dearly for her contempt of method and training and her reliance on the native virtues of the British temperament.

All the six essays in the volume have some reference to the working of the amateur spirit in the world. Two are devoted to that long-suffering person, the college professor. There is on the whole no class of men in American society about whom so much uneasiness is felt as about the college professor. The members of the busy world, recognizing now and again for a moment that he is their affair since he educates their sons, exhort him to remember that his poverty is dignified by the sacredness of his mission to their families. He is urged on all hands to respect himself and make his students respect him on a salary that would not keep one of them in pocket money, and to lead the simple life, which takes a great deal of money. Only Professor Münsterberg faced the situation when he suggested that, in a community which respects men in proportion to their ability to make money, it is ridiculous to isolate one class and bid it be clever and good and let who will be rich. Mr. Perry, with all his respect for the profession, writes as usual an apologia for the professor. His faculty circles making pathetic efforts to grow worldly in their riper years, plunging desperately into dancing-lessons or duplicate whist, are enough to freeze the blood of every junior member of a college faculty. The picture is true to life and should be faced. "He who can, does; he who cannot, teaches," says Mr. Bernard Shaw. It is a brutal truth for many a young man who, without the power to do creative work in his subject, and with no real enthusiasm for teaching, has taken the line of least resistance and has achieved a state of mind in which five months' vacation in the year seems absolutely necessary, and a nine o'clock lecture an imposition. No man who had the wit to go into a grocery store would choose the enervating, slipshod existence that is a too common interpretation of the academic life. Lowell was one of those who felt that he had escaped academic atrophy, the least honorable sort of decay. When he was a college professor he "used to lecture for an hour or two, go back to Elmwood, fill his pipe, and thank God that he had done a day's work." To Lowell, unlike Browning's grammarian, that seemed the time to ring up the curtain and "taste life," and there are many men in our generation for whom the chair of a professor is too narrow. So we have the new type, the sophisticated professor, "the expert who knows all about railroads and bridges and subways; about gas commissions and electrical supplies; about currency and banking, Philippine tariffs, Venezuelan boundary lines, etc." These happy individuals "combine technical training with practical capacity." They are not amateurs of life; they have decided both to live and to know.

The little sketch of "Hawthorne at North Adams" is an interesting reconstruction of that village when, fifty years ago, Hawthorne wandered over the neighboring hills, and was there inspired with the story of "Ethan Brand," whose setting is drawn exclusively from notes taken at North Adams. The moral problem in that tale was Hawthorne's own problem. He came to North Adams at a time when he felt that, like Ethan Brand, he ran the risk of becoming "a cold observer, looking on mankind as the subject of his experiment. . . . When he left North Adams, it was to enter almost at once upon the life of a weigher and gauger in the Boston Custom House, and to stand thenceforth in the ranks with his fellow-men."

The ideal which Mr. Perry sets before his readers in these essays is the combination of "the professional's skill with the zest and enthusiasm of the amateur." It is the doctrine that was preached with emphasis some years ago by the late Mr. Goschen when he exhorted the English, in a phrase that had a brief vogue, to take an "intellectual interest" in their work, whatever the work might be. There is everything to be said for such a doctrine, and Mr. Perry in these essays covers a good deal of the ground in a very agreeable strain.

Modern Tariff History—Germany, United States, France. By Percy Ashley, M.A., with a Preface by the Rt. Hon. R. B. Haldane. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1904.

This volume comprises the substance of the lectures delivered by Mr. Ashley in the Lent and summer terms of the past year to his classes in the London School of Economics. Derived almost wholly from secondary sources intelligently selected, they afford in short compass a good sketch of the history of the tariff during the past century in the three countries designated in the title of the book. The impetus to Mr. Ashley's work was given by the vigorous propaganda which Mr. Chamberlain began in 1903 for a system of preferential duties between the different parts of the British Empire. Mr. Ashley, so Mr. Haldane assures us in the preface, began his inquiry into the history of foreign tariffs without bias. The method of inquiry followed was the historical method, and the result is practically a reaffirmation of the traditional view in favor of free trade as against protection. The conclusion reached, however, is not based solely on grounds of cosmopolitan economics, but upon a forecast of the probable future needs and development of the constituent parts of the Empire. It is not a little curious, by the way, that Mr. Percy Ashley's elder brother, Prof. W. J. Ashley, is one of the two professional economists of note in England who have taken up the cudgels for Mr. Chamberlain's scheme.

In Mr. Haldane's very interesting preface he observes that the only adequate method for an investigation of this kind is the historical method—"the plan of examining the state of things that has to be inquired into in connection with its past, and in the light of all materials which can show why and by what steps it has come about." One may fairly insist, however, that the historical method as thus defined would shed less light on the problem than Mr. Haldane imagines. Indeed, the inadequacy of the historical method, pure and simple, is here shown, in that the industrial prosperity of Germany (p. 135), of France (p. 358), and of the United States (p. 261), is admitted by Mr. Ashley to be the product of many factors of which tariffs are but one, and one whose specific contribution to the joint result is confessedly incapable of measurement. Nothing at this day and hour is more to be deplored than a revival of the old *Methodenstreit* in economics. It suffices to say that Mr. Ashley employs the historical method judiciously and effectively, with an evident knowledge of its limitations. His cautious inference from given conditions evinces a better insight into its capabilities than would be suggested by Mr. Haldane's rather indiscriminate panegyric upon the historic method.

This history of tariffs in three different

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countries presents some curious analogies. Thus, the Zollverein in Germany, which secured virtual freedom of internal transit and which culminated in the creation of the German Empire, is strangely like the federating process by which the American States were moved to form a central government which guaranteed freedom of interstate commerce. As regards the United States and France, the strongest point of likeness is that in both countries the bases of their present high tariffs were laid in the exigencies of war finance in the decade 1861-1871. Again, in all three countries Mr. Ashley points out the undisputed fact that protected interests have often exerted an undue and preponderating influence upon the lawmakers. In all three States, moreover, there has been manifested in the last two decades a strong protectionist movement, based on the necessity of taking the agriculturist into the protective partnership. And, lastly, in all three States various preferential or retaliatory projects have within a quarter of a century been grafted upon the earlier tariff trunk to afford a card in diplomacy or a club in a tariff war. Not the least instructive part of the book is the account given of various tariff wars—between Germany and Russia (pp. 92, 93), between France and Italy (p. 334 sq.), between France and Switzerland (p. 347 sq.)—and the almost inevitable loss suffered by both parties to the conflict. As a weapon, a differential tariff is a boomerang *par excellence*.

Instructive as is this comparative tariff history in many other respects, it is peculiarly excellent as affording an insight into what is called Neo-Mercantilism, and its correlative—which might perhaps be called Neo-Libertarianism. The advocates of protection in Germany, for example, as typified in such a man as Wagner, do not fail to recognize the validity of the abstract free-trade doctrine if based upon a cosmopolitan and static view of industry. But they contend that it should be Germany's ideal, situated as she is geographically and politically, to be self-sufficing, not dependent on the food supply grown on a foreign soil. Hence the policy of agrarian protection. In England, the followers of Chamberlain and his opponents no longer view the question of free trade from the standpoint of thirty years ago. To Cobden free trade was something recognized as supremely beneficial *semper, ubique, ab omnibus*. One could not lay claim to being an orthodox free trader unless he was ready to affirm that, despite the policy of other nations, absolute free trade was a *sine qua non*. This dogma was like the alleged Calvinistic test of being a Christian—a willingness to be damned for the glory of God. To Mr. Ashley, on the other hand, free trade is to be supported because, despite the growing inability of Great Britain to provide financially for the protection of the oversea empire, Mr. Chamberlain's scheme of preferential duties would not augment but lessen the financial power of Great Britain, and very likely provoke friction in the colonies at the same time. To one versed in the older habit of thought, the presumption of the modern thinker in forecasting the political and industrial future a generation or even a century in advance is somewhat appalling; but it is in the air, and so long as it rules the thought of the present day, it is at least reassuring to learn, as in Mr. Ashley's case, that it need not necessarily lead to the espousal of protection, retaliation, reprisal, and war.

The Oxyrhynchus Papyri. Part IV. Edited by B. P. Grenfell and A. S. Hunt. Egypt Exploration Fund, Græco-Roman Branch. London. 1904.

The present volume contains for the most part papyri found in the second excavations at Oxyrhynchus in 1903. It will not be as amusing to the general reader as certain of the previous volumes, since it includes but few of the non-legal and non-literary, but excessively human, documents that gave in them such a sparkle of life to the pages of a very dead subject. The reason for the present seriousness is not that no such papyri were found in the later work, but that on the one hand literary papyri of great interest called for immediate publication, along with a group of fragments from the Augustan period, which is rarely represented in these finds; and on the other hand, the size of the annual volumes is limited by the contents of the treasury of this branch of the fund. Many papyri of the third century are therefore held over for later publication, and apparently several seasons must pass before we shall be through with the work on this fruitful site.

First and foremost in importance among the theological papyri are the new Sayings of Jesus, which have been published separately, and have been already described in these columns. The final remark upon them by the editors points out their interest for many other persons than professed theologians:

"The mystical and speculative element in the early records of Christ's sayings, which found its highest and most widely accepted expression in St. John's gospel, may well have been much more general, and less peculiarly Johannine, than has hitherto been taken for granted."

Three other theological papyri, all of the third or early fourth century, are also of interest. One of these is a brief fragment of a lost gospel, which contains some sayings of Jesus that are found in a closely similar form in the canonical gospels, and some other sayings that have a resemblance to those in the so-called Gospel according to the Egyptians. A considerable portion of the Book of Genesis in the Septuagint version, and another of the Epistle to the Hebrews, are not without textual interest and importance. A reminiscence of the Decian persecution is contained in a petition from a certain man in behalf of himself, his son, and his daughter, that the commission appointed to make inquisition against Christians should certify that he and his children had in their presence poured libations, offered sacrifice, and tasted the offerings, as the imperial edict required.

Of interest among fragments of lost classical works are pieces of a Partheneion and Ode of Pindar, of the first century B. C., and a bit of the argument of a play of Cratinus, the "Dionysalexandros." But the especial treasure of the volume is a new Latin epitome of Livy, covering Books 37-40 and 48-55. The papyrus is of probably the third century, and has no such literary merit as the extant Epitome, being merely a bare list of events, mentioned one after the other without the least attempt to connect them together. But the events are grouped by books and years, with the names of the consuls for each successive year carefully given, from which it becomes possible to correct certain more vague indications of chronology in the extant Epitome. The first part of the papyrus contains no new facts, of course, since it covers a portion of the extant history. But this part, by comparison with the full text, gives valuable information about the principles on which the epitomator worked, thereby enabling the student to form a more critical judgment of the second part of the MS., which covers books no longer extant. The author of the Epitome probably lived in Egypt in the second or third century. The editors remark that this discovery of an Epitome in which the names of the consuls, in the ablative case, are prefixed to the events of each year, goes far to support the acute conjecture of Mommsen from internal evidence in the case of Cassiodorus and Orosius, that these authors used such an Epitome rather than Livy's complete text. The new Epitome enables us to fix more definitely certain facts about which the testimony of extant authors is not precise, and in some details to correct previous errors. A number of new facts also are supplied. Singularly enough, the accusation of L. Aurelius Cotta by Scipio Africanus, which has previously been assigned to one of the years 133-129, on the authority of Cicero, is set down by the papyrus under 138, which appears to bring Livy and Cicero into conflict. The editors have been assisted in their annotation of the Epitome by Mr. Warde Fowler and Professors Kornemann, Wissowa, and J. S. Reid, the last of whom has published further, and very important, remarks of his own in the *Classical Review* for July, 1904. Doubtless much further discussion will be prompted by the discovery of such a notable, and puzzlingly defective, historical document. Even the writers of Roman history for schools will need to take it into consideration.

The volume contains a goodly number of interesting legal documents, which increase our knowledge of details of Egyptian administration and Græco-Egyptian law. The number of personal letters is, as we have intimated, very few. One (of the year 1 B. C.) is of curious interest, if the reading is correct, as bearing witness to the practical as well as theoretical authority of the paterfamilias over the fate of a newborn infant. A man writes back home from Alexandria directions that if the expected child proves to be a boy, it is to be reared (apparently this is the meaning), but if it proves to be a girl, it is to be exposed. Actual instances of such power of life and death over children born in the household are rare enough at this period to render a possible addition to their number noteworthy.

Genealogical Sketches of the Woodbury Family: Its Intermarriages and Connections. By Charles Levi Woodbury. Edited by his sister, E. C. D. Q. Woodbury. Manchester, N. H.: Printed by the John B. Clarke Co. 1904. Pp. 251.

These sketches, so the editor tells us, "were not meant for the eye of the general public, but for that portion of the Woodbury family directly interested in the

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one who first undertook their compilation." The critic is thus disarmed at the outset. But we are sure that no portion even of the Woodbury family is content to stumble around in the dark merely for the want of an index of names. Ungallant though it be to bring the charge, we must protest that a book, otherwise so well edited, should thus suffer at the hands of its sponsor.

Few men familiar with Boston in the latter half of the century just past did not know, at least by sight, that sturdy leader of the Democratic party in Massachusetts, Charles Levi Woodbury (1820-1898). "Judge" Woodbury the newspapers used to call him, simply because he was a distinguished lawyer who was getting along in years. At an earlier date "the boys" liked to speak of him as "Charlie Woodbury." Among his friends he towered above other men, as one of the heartiest and noblest of those downright good fellows, with plenty of brains, that New England had furnished to the metropolis. The son showed himself an abler lawyer and a more accomplished man than the father, Levi Woodbury.

The younger Woodbury manifested also a taste for letters. He was fond of books. A precious collection of his was burned in the great fire of 1872, and he set about making another collection, which grew to be almost as valuable. Though a little inclined to indolence, he applied himself to writing articles, chiefly upon topics of local history, and so he put into shape the sketches of his ancestry that form the pages of this volume. He did his own thinking. He wrote plain English. A love of the sea and of the seacoast, indeed of all that is free and breezy and bountiful, marks his style. Probably no other man of his time possessed a more intimate knowledge of the early history of Massachusetts Bay or of the scanty coast of New Hampshire, "the Pascataqua region," than Mr. Woodbury. He was a collector of books. Along with his impulse toward broad and catholic views, he had schooled himself to be accurate in every statement. With an unerring eye he read the character of the first settler. He read it, too, in a tolerant, healthy-minded spirit.

'An Old Planter in New England,' privately printed, tells the story of John Woodbury of Cape Ann, the founder of the Woodbury family in America. In terse language Charles Levi Woodbury had already preserved for posterity in this monograph the record of an eminently useful life. This same John Woodbury is the starting-point for a series of sketches in the present volume. There is an opening chapter on genealogy. It is by far the best treatment of that subject we have ever seen. We are tempted to quote a word or two where the writer upholds the dignity and worth of the more prominent of the New England settlers.

"An ancestor who was a deputy, or a military officer, or a deacon, was a man of rank and precedence. Were he a minister, a magistrate, or of the council, or perchance governor of a colony, he also was a man of notable colonial rank, whether he bore coat armor or were ignorant of its very existence. He got his rank of the people in its sovereign aspect and authority because it was freely and voluntarily given, thus making it intrinsically higher in quality and dignity than any title the king might confer on a subject of his own suggestion and pleasure, and to-day should be held in more reverence" (p. 21).

The work comprises thirty-four chapters. The various Woodburys are described and their children named. Then an incursion is made into the field of "The Wives of the Woodburys." Here we have such names as Batchelder, Dodge, Traske, Herrick, Perkins, Palgrave, Clapp, Quincy, Wendell, Gookin, Flynt, De Kay, and many others.

Levi Woodbury of New Hampshire (1789-1851) had a career that was wonderful. At twenty-seven he was judge of the Supreme Court of New Hampshire, and shortly after, chief justice; Governor at thirty-four, and United States Senator at thirty-six. He became Secretary of the Navy under Jackson in 1831, and Secretary of the Treasury in 1834; he was again chosen United States Senator, and finally took his seat in 1845 as an associate justice of the Supreme Court of the United States. He declined two foreign missions, of the highest importance, and was generally looked upon as the prospective candidate of the Democratic party for President in 1852, had he lived. The family of Levi Woodbury for many years has been prominent in Washington. One of his daughters, the wife of Montgomery Blair, of Lincoln's Cabinet, is remembered as a charming and good woman. Another is the widow of G. V. Fox, distinguished as a most efficient Assistant Secretary of the Navy during the war for the Union. The child of another daughter is married to the Duke d'Arcos, for some time Spanish minister at Washington. The name also survives in two grandsons, Woodbury Blair and Woodbury Lowery, gentlemen of distinction at the capital—the latter an author of some little note.

The editor has performed her task with the taste and discrimination to have been expected. Though the manuscript had been prepared by her brother almost exclusively for the use of the descendants of John Woodbury, it is well that the material is now laid open to the use of the public. We can say of this volume, what can rarely be said of a family history, that it will surely prove of interest to the general reader. Here we have original thought, expressed by a man of remarkable ability, in terms that are attractive, flavored by what may be called "a genuine democratic spirit." In other words, the book is valuable as giving a clear and true insight into the processes of development of the New England people.

Imperial Vienna: An Account of its History, Traditions, and Arts. By A. S. Levetus. Illustrated by Erwin Puchinger. John Lane. 1904.

The volume before us is both more and less than its sub-title implies. There is a good deal of "history" (141 pages out of 416), an indefinite amount of "tradition," and very little (ten pages) about "art, including sculpture and painting under Franz Josef"; but there is, in addition, something about literature, the theatre, dancing, court festivities, society, education, and the life of the common people. And, of course, the guide-book element is all there—description of streets, squares, buildings, monuments, churches, palaces, etc. The whole is enlivened by more than 150 well-selected and, for the most part, very clever illustrations from sketches in charcoal, pencil, and pen-and-ink. The typography, too, is very attractive, and the entire book pleasing to the eye in every way. Nevertheless, the result is disappointing. Not that the book is, on the whole, uninteresting or inaccurate. Mr. Levetus, whether an Englishman or a Viennese, knows the Kaiserstadt, has consulted good, though not many, sources, and is not sensational in the treatment of his topics. The book is entirely free from the wild extravagance of the "Martyrdoms" and the other pretended "revelations" of Viennese life—it is an honest effort to describe the Vienna of to-day, but one is tempted to apply to it Lessing's dictum: "One is precious little if all one is is honest." At its best utterly devoid of literary grace, it contains many sentences of almost incredible crudity, and some which make one wonder how they could have escaped the eye of the most careless proof-reader. Thus we read: "Although in 1849 a Constitution was granted, still, after a trial of two years it was dissolved and was not again called together till 1860"; and "There is nothing goes on in the city without the Emperor attending it." In other respects, the proof-reading is very good. There is scarcely a misprint in any of the German titles and sentences quoted, though errors in names abound: Schnörr, Carnova, Petteinkofen, "Philippine Leppi" (for Filippo Lippi), Glück, Szandor (for Sándor), "Heback" (for Herbeck), Tiapolo, etc. Errors of fact are not so numerous, the historical portion, indeed, being quite accurate, though the Franz-Josef's Quay was not opened in 1896, but, as far as our recollection goes, early in the sixties; and it is not true, in more than one way (aside from the Irish bull involved), that "the most popular living novelists are Ferdinand Kürnberger . . . and many others, including Ferdinand Gross, who is now no more." Ferdinand Kürnberger died in 1879, and Ferdinand Gross was not at any time, either before or after his death, a popular novelist or anything more than a modest *feuilletoniste*. Nor is it true of Grillparzer that, "during his visit to Italy, he happened to be going up Vesuvius just at the same time the Emperor Francis I. and the Empress were climbing down the mountain. The Kaiser at once recognized him, and addressed him in a friendly manner, saying: 'Oh, my dear Grillparzer, you are also here? It is very beautiful, but mind the lava.'" The fact is, the Emperor was not present at all on that occasion, which Grillparzer describes as follows in his 'Selbstbiographie':

"Near the hermit's lodge a cavalcade of several veiled ladies, accompanied by their retinue, came towards us. I recognized the Empress of Austria by the livery of the servants. I tried to stop my hurrying donkey, or at least to get him out of the middle of the path, but succeeded only in putting him in such a position that when the Empress passed us, my back was turned to her. I could merely take off my hat, but could not see her."

Of the lack of literary skill shown throughout, nothing is more characteristic than the fact that, while several pages are devoted to the painter, Rudolf von Alt ("no word is too great for the grand old pioneer"), the uninitiated would never suspect that all his work was in water color. Still, there is valuable material in this work for some future Augustus Hare or Howells,

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who may wish to write 'Walks in Vienna' or 'Viennese Life.'

In to the Yukon. By William Seymour Edwards. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. 1904. 8vo. Pp. 312. Illustrated.

This volume comprises the observations of a traveller from West Virginia, via the Great Lakes and the Canada Pacific Railway to the Pacific Coast, the Canadian Yukon, southern California, and return. It belongs to a class of which many have been printed, and from which in general little is to be expected, either by the literary man or the geographer. It is somewhat of a surprise, therefore, when, in perusing the work, one discovers that it has some positive merits. Mr. Edwards seems to be a clear-sighted observer, and his narration is straightforward and unpretentious. He appears to possess the knack of gathering and summarizing popular opinion without the exaggeration or superficiality usually characteristic of hasty newsgatherers.

The most interesting portion of the book is naturally that relating to the Klondike region. When the excitement of new discoveries and the rush of population are in full intensity, the press is filled with correspondence and descriptive matter relating to the region concerned. But, after business begins to assume a more normal character, prices have fallen, and mining has become systematic instead of spasmodic, the newspapers and magazines abandon the field for others promising some newer sensation. It is a conspicuous merit of Mr. Edwards's story that it gives us what looks like a fair and impartial account of conditions on the Canadian Yukon in the summer of 1903, and of the state of public opinion there in regard to the manner in which the Canadian Government has discharged its duty of regulating this distant territory mainly populated and exploited by energetic foreigners from "the States."

There has been so much just criticism of the neglect shown by the Republic toward the proper governing of her own Territory of Alaska, that it is interesting to compare the results of the minute and rigorously paternal rule of the Dominion under analogous conditions. There is no doubt that the Canadian Parliament has recouped its expenditures for the Yukon district by taking liberal tithes of the product of the mines, by its taxation of wood, water, and imported goods. It gives one a shock to learn, however, that, to make sure that no gold dust gets out of the territory without paying its two and a half per cent. to the Dominion, a female customs inspector strips to their chemises all the women in the railway coaches of the White Pass Railway, on outbound trains. Even the New York customs requirements seem to be tolerably decent after that.

It is well known that in the early days, especially in the post-office and police forces, a certain amount of "graft" was winked at by the Dominion authorities, chiefly, it is to be supposed, because on no other terms could they have kept any officials at all while fortunes were being had for the digging all about them. Now that things have settled down, if we may credit Mr. Edwards's report of public opinion in Dawson, corruption has shifted to Ottawa, and is shown chiefly in the granting of private concessions to individuals, such as the one discovered to be possessed of

"an exclusive blanket grant to all the water rights of the Klondike valley and its affluent creeks, as well as the exclusive right to hold and work all gold-bearing land not already occupied, and also to hold and have every claim, already staked or worked, which for any reason may lapse to the crown, either for non-payment of taxes or any other reason, thus shutting out the individual miner from ever staking a new claim within this region, should he discover the gold, and from taking up any lapsed claim and from re-filing his own claim, should he be careless and neglect to pay his annual taxes by the appointed day. Another man . . . appears with a similar concession covering the famous Eldorado and Bonanza Creeks, where land is valued by the inch, and millions have been dug out" (p. 140).

"So vigorous has been the protest against these daring abuses of a Government clique that this summer (1903) what is called a Dominion Royal Commission has been sent to investigate the situation" (p. 143).

It is pleasant to turn from these unsavory revelations to the description, illustrated by an equally surprising photograph, of the first annual exhibition of the Yukon "Horticultural Society":

"The biggest beets I have ever seen, the meaty substance all clear, solid, firm, and juicy. Potatoes, Early Rose and other varieties, some new kinds raised from seed in three years—large, a pound or more in size. And such cabbage, cauliflower, and lettuce as you never saw before! Many kinds, fullheaded, and able to compete with any produced anywhere. All these raised in the open air on the rich, black bottom and bench land of the Yukon" (p. 144).

The illustrations are exceptionally good and fresh, from the author's own photographs. The volume would be none the worse for possessing an index.

Th. Nast: His Period and his Pictures. By Albert Bigelow Paine. The Macmillan Co. 1904.

Time hurries on so rapidly that it has already made Nast and his period a part of the past, and Mr. Paine has done the public a good turn in preserving this record of a great caricaturist. The scale of the drawings is so different from that originally adopted as to impair here and there the impression made by them, but their power and humor are so vital as to be indestructible. Of course, they are more amusing and attractive to the survivors of the period than to the new generation which has forgotten to whom it owes its Tammany Tiger and its Republican Elephant, but we can hardly imagine a time when our successors will not turn back with interest to these cartoons. Gillray is dead and buried, but he lives again in those undying caricatures which helped to put courage into the hearts of the enemies of Napoleon. Of Nast as an artist it is unnecessary to speak—we do not mean in any way to undervalue his original gift—for, having once devoted himself to political satire and caricature, he appealed to a political public, and no technical criticism can affect the success which that public's approval gave.

Nast was born in Germany, but came over here so young that the country was never foreign to him; very likely, however, his Teutonic parentage and inherited tendencies made him the better able to appreciate those differences and contrasts on the feeling for which any successful caricature must rest. Certain it is that he grew up with a Teutonic honesty of mind and heart; and this gave him a divine mission to help to their doom the wonderful group of hypocrites and thieves who, under the leadership of Tweed, Sweeny, Hall, and Connolly, gutted the treasury of New York. It is no doubt by the Tammany Hall and Tweed Ring series of cartoons that his name will be perpetuated. To us he made the faces of the four as familiar as those of any eminent characters in ancient or modern history. Of his war pictures, which in their day were effective and pathetic arguments, it is an obvious criticism that he had not then fully found his vein. His wonderful eye for a likeness (the real expression of the face is always there, only made slightly grotesque) now guided him along a sure path, while his strong political sense gave him an abundance of perfect situations. Tweed was identified and captured through one of his pictures, and, in turning over the pages of this volume, one is struck with the constant sense of being in a portrait gallery of old acquaintances.

As good a test as any is to take a caricature meant to express an idea which is to us untrue. Nothing is really further from the fact than the notion that Sumner, Schurz, and the Liberal Republicans of 1872 were abandoning the negro in their preparations for the support of an independent candidate for President; but we defy anybody who ever saw those gentlemen to refrain from laughing at the sketch of "The Boat's Crew that is Going Over: Will Robinson Crusoe Desert his Man Friday?" Robinson Crusoe is Sumner; Friday, the poor negro on his knees bemoaning the approaching event; the hesitating Crusoe, absorbed in himself, is being hurried into the boat ("Cincinnati Convention") by the two conspirators, Schurz and Fenton; in the stern sheets is standing the enthusiastic and vociferous Greeley, waving his broad-brimmed hat in the direction of a full-rigged ship, "Democracy," in the offing, flying the "K. K. K." flag. Every face in the boat is a speaking likeness. And what shall we say of McKinley, weeping after Harrison's defeat, and the wonderful Tilden caricatures, and of those of Blaine? As we linger over the pages of Mr. Paine's volume we feel what we have lost. There may, for all we know, be caricaturists to-day who have greater natural gifts; there have been in the past men like Tenniel or Gavarni (to go from one pole to the other) who may be considered of a higher order; but when we think of Nast's range and *vis comica*, and hearty, generous motive (never unpartisan, and never mean), and his skill in character portraiture, we close the book with a sigh of regret that the curtain is rung down, and that the show which for us older playgoers lasted so long and so pleasantly, is over.

Mr. Paine's Life is evidently a labor of love. The author is an enthusiast, and must be followed in the light of his enthusiasm. He explains very fully the difference between G. W. Curtis and Nast, at the time of the Liberal campaign of 1872, and their effect on the attitude of *Harper's Weekly*. In narrating the history of the caricaturist, he follows that of his own times, and in this way has made, for any one who desires to understand the United

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States from 1860 to 1896, not only a very entertaining, but a very useful volume.

Das Goldene Buch vom Eigenen Heim; Eine Hauskunde für Jedermann. [By many different authors.] Berlin and Stuttgart: W. Spemann; New York: Lemcke & Buechner. 1905. 729 numbered paragraphs.

This is a stout little volume, bound in gilded cloth, with an elaborate stamped pattern in red and marbled edges, all of a rather pretty effect; one of a series dealing with Music, Art, Literature, Manners and Customs, Health, and the Theatre. It seems as if all worldly subjects were to be included, sooner or later, in this handy encyclopædia. This initial volume takes up House Architecture in general, and devotes one-fourth of its space to a very practical study of needs and requirements, plan and construction, giving pictures of three-score dwelling-houses, and plans of many of them. Then comes interior decoration, with the visible media of heating and gas-lighting and electricity, and with illustrations of much interest. Some of them offer very good and very original designs. In farther advancement of this subject the cover-linings may be studied; for they are printed with mottoes, ejaculations, and pithy sayings taken from the gables of old German houses and the roof timbers of covered bridges. For example—

"Ohne Gottes Schutz
Unsrer nichts nutz'";

but there must be nigh a hundred of them. A brief paper on Garden Architecture gives yet other exterior views of houses, with pavilions and fountains and similar luxuries of the park and garden.

Just half the volume has been used for the matters named above; and nearly all of the second half is given up to a history of domestic architecture, winding up with separate essays on Bavarian farmhouses, English villas and the like, with many and very useful pictures. Finally, about 75 pages are occupied with notices of German architects of the time, with a little portrait-head of each man.

The curious thing about the book is that it is really very good. The selection of subjects is intelligent, the curt statements are generally faultless, the illustrations are remarkably well chosen and instructive. If you must get your information and your judgment out of cheap little handbooks, this is one of the best of them; and it ought to be translated into English.

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